

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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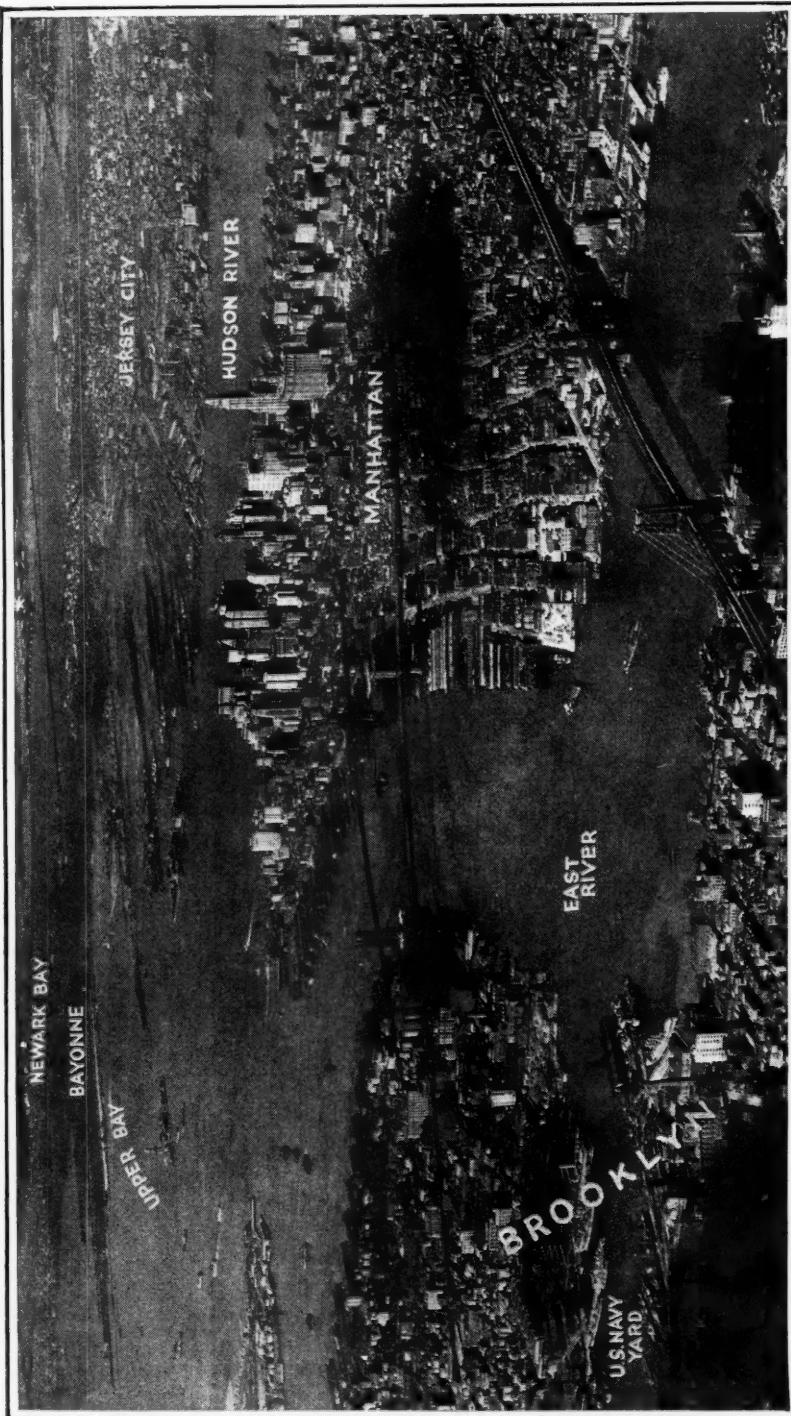
TERMS:—Issued monthly, 35 cents a number, \$4.00 a year in advance in the United States and Canada. Elsewhere \$5.00. Entered at New York Post Office as second-class matter. Entered as second-class matter at the Post Office Department, Ottawa, Canada. Subscribers may remit to us by post-office or express money orders, or by bank checks, drafts, or registered letters. Money in letters is sent at sender's risk. Renew as early as possible in order to avoid a break in the receipt of the numbers. Bookdealers, Postmasters and Newsdealers receive subscriptions.

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CORPORATION, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York

Publishers of THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS and THE GOLDEN BOOK MAGAZINE

ALBERT SHAW, Pres. CHAS. D. LANIER, Sec. and Treas.

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NEW YORK, THE METROPOLIS OF AMERICA AND THE WORLD'S GREATEST PORT

(This striking airplane view will be found most helpful as one reads the series of articles on New York City in subsequent pages. It shows the downtown section of Manhattan and part of the populous Borough of Brooklyn; but especially does it show—as no other picture could—vast outlying sections of the port)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. LXXII.

NEW YORK, OCTOBER, 1925

No. 4

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Coal Mining in Pennsylvania and in England

Remarks in these pages last month pointed to the probability of a coal strike in the anthracite fields of Pennsylvania with the beginning of September. Even among many exceptionally well-informed people there was a firm belief, up to the very end of August, that there would be no strike, first because there was no ground for it and second because the conditions seemed so unfavorable for success on the part of the aggressive Mr. Lewis and his fellow leaders of the miners' union. But the strike was called, nevertheless, as we explain later on. Our readers will remember that the threatened English coal strike had produced so dangerous a crisis—economic, social, and political—that Prime Minister Baldwin had found it necessary to buy off the miners by providing a subsidy out of the public treasury, amounting in round figures to \$50,000,000, to keep the mines working. This agreement was ratified in the House of Commons, as we explained last month, by a vote of 351 to 18, after Mr. Baldwin had set forth the case and other leaders had debated it thoroughly.

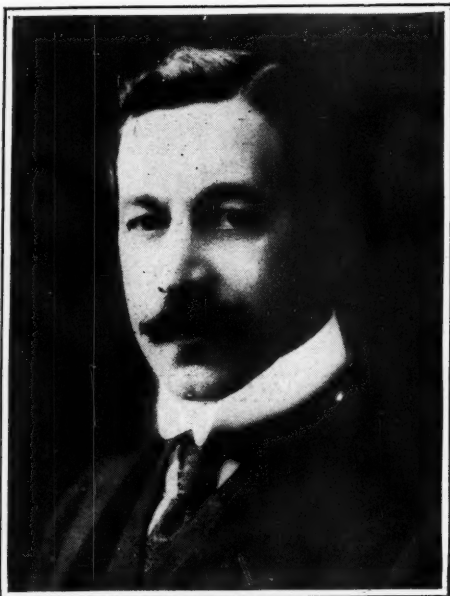
British Doles and a Royal Commission

The subsidy is to be applied in such a way as to meet the difference between what the mine operators can pay and what the miners' union demands. The precedent is not a cheerful one for the opponents of socialism. The English labor point of view favors nationalization of the coal industry. It was a part of the compromise arrangement that a Royal Commission should be appointed to investigate the situation in all its bearings. This British coal commission was named on September 3. Its

members are Sir Herbert Louis Samuel, Sir William Henry Beveridge, Gen. Sir Herbert Alexander Lawrence, and Mr. Kenneth Lee. These men are high authorities in all that pertains to British industry and commerce; and associated with them are many experts in whatever pertains to the subject matter of the inquiry. The report will be made some time next spring, until which time the instalment payments will be made under the subsidy plan. For the first month, as it turns out, the sum required to maintain wages was about £860,000 (which is a little more than one-twelfth of the total credit voted for this purpose). The amounts requisitioned from month to month will of course depend upon output and varying wage details.

Favorable American Conditions

There was no such crisis involved in the Pennsylvania anthracite disagreement as that which confronted British industry and commerce a few weeks ago. The coal industry lies at the very basis of Great Britain's economic structure. There is little hydro-electric power in England; and petroleum supplies for oil-burning engines, whether on land or on sea, have to be secured in distant countries. The contrasting situation in the United States is set forth in an article that we have secured from the pen of Mr. George H. Cushing, a reliable authority who has at former times written for our readers on these questions of coal and fuel supply. The factors in our American problem are definitely presented in this careful survey by Mr. Cushing. Taking the country as a whole, we have a fairly wide natural distribution of fuel, although the anthracite supply is virtually



RIGHT HON. SIR HERBERT LOUIS SAMUEL,
HEAD OF THE ENGLISH ROYAL COMMISSION
ON THE COAL INDUSTRY

(Sir Herbert Samuel has recently ended a period of several years as British High Commissioner in Palestine. He was born in 1870; won high honors at Oxford; and entered active politics as a Liberal, serving for many years in the House of Commons and having filled with credit many positions in successive cabinets)

confined to one portion of the State of Pennsylvania. In other parts of Pennsylvania the bituminous or soft coal production is enormous, and there is for centuries to come a practically unlimited supply of soft coal in West Virginia, Kentucky, Ohio, and other States South and West. For domestic purposes, in most parts of the country, we have appreciable quantities of wood, excellent as a complete or partial fuel for the needs of the household, without any sacrifice of the more important timber that enters into the supply of building material. The increased use of fuel oil, moreover, is notable, and Mr. Cushing calls attention to the growing use of fuel gas. Looking to the future, the most important thing of all is the substitution of electricity developed by water power, to take the place of coal in industry and transportation, in lighting and heating, and in other ways.

The Anthracite Mines Closed Completely At midnight August 31 there began this strike of the entire body of anthracite miners—158,000 in number—in the Pennsylvania hard coal fields. A complete deadlock had

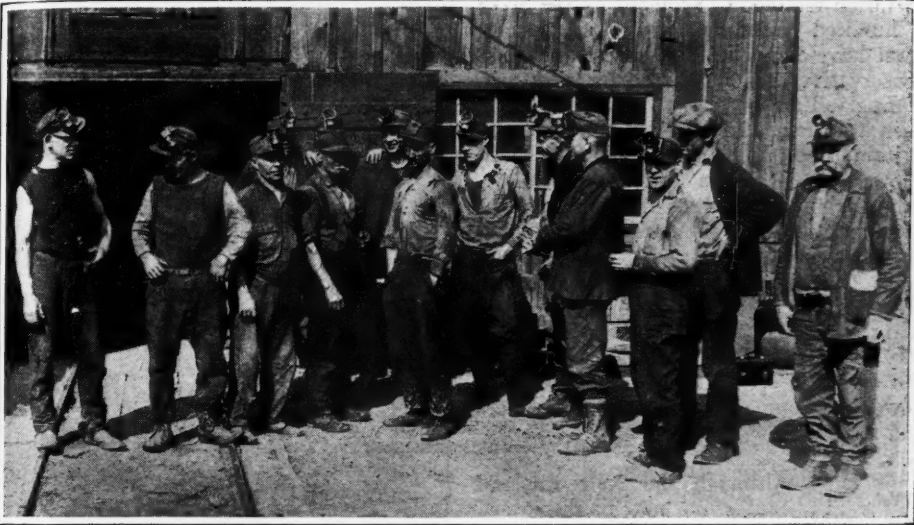
resulted between the miners and the operators, the former demanding a two-year wage contract at a 10 per cent. increase and the institution of the "check-off," the latter refusing these concessions and insisting on a reduction in the present scale of wages. This present wage schedule is, according to operators, not only the highest ever known in the anthracite industry; it shows an increase over pre-war wages equivalent to nearly three times the increase in the cost of living. The hard coal furnished the entire country comes from ten Pennsylvania counties; all of their 828 mines, operated by 135 different companies, are affected by the strike. Indeed the local restriction of the industry is really even more complete: 75 per cent. of the hard coal that is mined and 80 per cent. of all the miners are concentrated in the three counties of Schuylkill, Luzerne and Lackawanna.

Striking in a Holiday Spirit

Although the miners were losing during the walkout more than \$1,100,000 in wages every day—for the wage cost of a ton of coal is about \$4—and although increases in the price of coal to the consumer promptly began, there has been an astonishingly slight interest in the matter for the public; while the miners themselves, in the early weeks of the strike, either took the matter in a holiday spirit and went fishing or, in some instances, left the hard coal regions to obtain employment in the bituminous field. About the only element that seemed seriously disturbed was made up of the storekeepers and others who do business with the half million population of the anthracite regions.

The Public Finds Substitutes

In one respect, however, the public has bestirred itself and it is a very important respect, which may have a serious influence on the future of the anthracite industry. There have been various organized movements to abandon the use of anthracite altogether, notably in New England; and individual citizens have been learning to do with the higher grades of bituminous or have installed oil-burning heating systems to an extent that has not been seen before. On September 11 Governor Pinchot of Pennsylvania invited President John L. Lewis of the United Mine Workers and W. W. Inglis, representative of the operators, to meet him separately at his home for discussion of the mining stoppage. Governor



A GROUP OF MINERS IN THE HARD-COAL FIELD OF PENNSYLVANIA, AS THEY WENT ON STRIKE

Pinchot let it be known at the same time that his action is taken without intention on his part to intervene in the controversy, the matter being a national question and he respecting "the right of the President of the United States to speak the first word."

*Anthracite
Less
Essential*

Great changes may well be predicted, as one considers the future. Mr. Cushing does not, however, indulge in flights of economic imagination in order to comfort people affected by concrete facts in 1925. He takes the immediate situation in hand, and finds that the people of the United States will be able to pull through the coming winter without serious disaster, even if the anthracite strike should continue until next summer. He finds that there will be satisfactory substitutes available to meet the shortage of anthracite that may result from the Pennsylvania situation. Meanwhile, the indirect and permanent results of such a strike, as distinguished from temporary aspects, may well prove to be of profound significance. Anthracite coal has for some years been sold to consumers at prices a good deal higher than strict economic and scientific facts would justify. Like other commodities having a luxury value, where the demand is great and the supply relatively limited, anthracite coal brings luxury prices. But every time a strike occurs in the Pennsylvania hard-coal valleys, the

use of soft coal, of artificial fuel gas, and of other substitutes makes a permanent gain. Where, in the last quarter century, the average output of anthracite has increased perhaps 50 per cent., the increase of bituminous has been nearer 150 per cent. Petroleum output is ten times as great as a quarter of a century ago, and the amount of crude oil used for fuel is steadily increasing.

*Water-Power
to Relieve
Coal Scarcity*

But the most important result of strikes in the coal industry is to be found in the impetus given to the utilization of hydro-electric power. Although the sale of anthracite coal to New England and New York is one of the principal items in the yearly commercial balance-sheet of Pennsylvania, Governor Pinchot is farsighted enough to have grasped clearly the fact that Pennsylvania loses far more than she gains by conditions which add unduly to the market cost of coal, whether anthracite or bituminous. Pennsylvania has vast and varied manufacturing industries, with an intense railroad traffic. Cheap fuel is just as desirable for Pennsylvania as it is for the industries of Glasgow, Sheffield, and Manchester. Governor Pinchot, having in mind all these major considerations, has made himself an apostle of the true economic faith that rests upon the cornerstone of hydro-electric power under public auspices and control. If all the coal resources of Pennsylvania

had been retained or acquired by the State a hundred years ago, great advantages must have accrued. The wisest and most conservative economists and business men of England are perfectly aware that it has been a mistake and a misfortune for Great Britain that unmined coal had ever been allowed to become private property. Whether in England or in Pennsylvania, however, the vested interests in coal-mining have become too vast and too complicated to make it appear feasible now to acquire ownership of coal mines, and of undeveloped coal resources, as a public asset. The better way to proceed in America clearly lies in the direction of securing immense water-power development, under public auspices and regulation.

*Official
Notice in
New England*

Although the New England States do not produce coal and do not regulate its marketing, they are so much affected by Pennsylvania conditions that they have found it necessary to take official notice. (1) Some two years ago, the chief law officers of the New England States and other anthracite-using commonwealths (nine of them in all) entered the courts to contest the Pennsylvania tax on coal production. (2) Impelled by these hard-coal using States, particularly New England and New York, the Interstate Commerce Commission investigated rates on railroad lines that transported Pennsylvania coal. (3) In immediate anticipation of the present strike, the Governors of the New England States came



A ONE-ACT COMEDY ENTITLED "LET IT RAIN"
From the News (Cleveland, Ohio)

together in conference several weeks ago to consider how they might protect the common interests of their people as coal consumers. They agreed upon the necessity of stimulating the use of substitutes, State institutions being urgently advised to set the example as far as possible.

*New England's
Industrial
Decline*

It so happens that this fuel question that now agitates the East is coincident with reports that show a falling off in the output of some of New England's principal industries, and a marked increase in unemployment. Even before there was any actual decline in the textile industries of New England, or in such highly concentrated lines of Massachusetts manufacture as that of shoes, there was visible a large and steady relative increase in the cotton-milling of the South and in the shoemaking of the West. But now it is found that Massachusetts has not only lost relatively in the quantity and value of her output in several leading lines, but has declined in actual amounts. It was reported last month that Massachusetts business men were arranging to spend a week in conference on these disquieting facts. The declines are not guesswork, but are presented in careful tabulations of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics. Over a two-year period, employment in the State's industries has



TIREDBUSINESSMEN TAKE THEIR ANNUAL VACATION

From the Eagle (Brooklyn, N. Y.)

decreased more than 20 per cent., and aggregate earnings more than 10 per cent. According to a special dispatch, "cotton shows an employment decrease of 26.8 per cent. from December, 1922, to June, 1925; boots and shoes a decrease of 39.2 per cent.; and woolen and worsteds a decrease of 24.2 per cent." North Carolina and other Southern districts have been gaining what Massachusetts has lost in cotton milling, while St. Louis and other Western centers have been taking away much of the boot and shoe industry.

Industrial Decentraliza- tion

Maine and New Hampshire are affected by the decline of their paper and pulp industries, Canada gaining what Northern New England loses. Vermont's foremost industry was based upon her immense deposits of marble and other building stone. But the increased use of concrete, steel, and brick has reduced the demand for the marbles and granites of New England. It is not in accordance with human nature to look far ahead and anticipate fundamental changes. Thus it has never been possible to make even the highly trained economists and statesmen of Great Britain fully understand that they had been building a topheavy industrial structure upon insecure foundations. The rest of the world was not destined to forego the benefits of industrial development, merely to raise cheap food and raw materials for English ships to convey to Liverpool, Glasgow, and London, nor yet to perpetuate reliable consuming markets for English manufactured goods. Policies which discouraged British agriculture, and unduly stimulated certain lines of manufacture, have resulted in a situation that is painfully hard to readjust. In spite of devoted efforts put forth by the shrewdest business men, diplomats, and politicians of the entire world, England has not been able as yet to reduce the volume of unemployment that followed the closing down of wartime activities. The carefully shaped policies that would transport surplus population to Canada and Australia do not work well as yet, for the simple reason that there are no large numbers of English folk who want to go to those countries. High intelligence and strong purpose may be relied upon to save Britain from disastrous declines of prestige and prosperity. But it will take twenty-five years more to accomplish the necessary

rearrangements, due to the fact that the economic conditions of the nineteenth century, that gave England predominance, no longer prevail in the twentieth century.

Our Case Less Serious than England's

Britain's over-concentration of industry and commerce has, in a certain sense, been paralleled in the northeastern part of the United States. It was inevitable that particular industries should migrate with the growth of the country. It is New England's experience and capital to a large extent that has recognized the inevitable, and has invested in Southern cotton spinning and in Western shoe factories. The problems of readjustment that New England faces are easy when compared with those that challenge Great Britain. The American worker is much more resourceful; and, if he cannot work at his regular trade, he can usually make a living in half a dozen other ways. English and Welsh coal miners have much less mobility than American miners. Surplus young men in American coal-mining towns are drawn off with great ease into other employments. New England has no problem of unemployment that will not in due time be readily adjusted.

Future of Our North-East

Meanwhile, it is to be remembered that New England is only three hundred years old, and has just begun to shape the course of its conscious history as a region. Henceforth, in highly civilized States, social results will be accomplished by taking thought, rather than by blind submission to drifts and tendencies. It was this belief that the course of affairs can be shaped through intelligent planning that brought the New England Governors together the other day to confer about the fuel question. Similarly, it is a belief that things can be done by taking heed and making plans that brought Massachusetts business men together in August to study the tendencies disclosed by official statistics of industrial decline. It is due to New England's inventiveness and skill that a world which was only recently ill-shod or barefoot is now accustomed to comfortable footwear. But for New England's immense expansion of the cotton industry, the world would have been clothed much less cheaply and well, and Southern agriculture would have been far less flourishing. No small part of the country's more

recent development means merely an extended application of New England's experience and capital. Henceforth, New England will learn, more than ever, to apply science and technical training to her own problems of production and commerce.

*A Field
for State
Coöperation*

With the new tendencies toward the regional treatment of transportation systems, New England will discover the advantages of a unified service that recognizes railroads, trolley lines, motor-busses and trucks, and also the highway system, as coördinate parts of a general scheme. Since the Governors of New England know how to consult together about the coal supply, it is perhaps time for them to debate the question whether or not there might be official State coöperation in providing a super-power service, that should be distributed uniformly for the operation of all the railroad mileage, and for the supplementing of local water-power systems used industrially. It is a rather curious thing, worth some study, that our great bankers and investment brokers should have been so diligent in persuading the investors of New England, New York, and Pennsylvania to buy the bonds of European countries, localities, and industrial corporations, that are to-day engaged in the development of electric power, while we postpone a like utilization of water power in our own country. New England has read of the Colorado River agreement, in which five States have found a way to utilize to the best advantage the waters of one great stream for irrigation and hydro-electric power. Why should not the New England States officially establish a power system that would emancipate them, to a great extent, from the necessity of importing coal? It would be far better for the American investor to put his money into the official water-power development of the Eastern part of the United States than into like enterprises now on foot in Western Europe.

*Super-Power
in Common
with Canada*

Even if a full utilization of the undeveloped water power of northern New England would not suffice, it would be perfectly feasible for the New England States, as an official group, to arrange for transmission of power from Canada, joining the Eastern Provinces in the building of dams and the erection of power plants. It is quite as reasonable

to import water power over transmission lines from Canada as to import rubber for automobile tires from the British possessions in the Pacific. For New England and the Eastern Canadian Provinces to coöperate in enterprises of this kind would be a triumph of practical common sense in public affairs. Economic problems are foremost, and petty politics should not be allowed to prevent the New England States from working together for a large undertaking; while it would be unintelligent for political prejudices across the boundary line to interfere with joint projects for the common good of Canada and the United States.

*Maine Votes
on a Great
Power Scheme*

It is an interesting fact that the voters of the State of Maine were holding a popular election on September 14 to deal with a power project. A company headed by a well-known engineer, Dexter P. Cooper, had long studied the possibilities of the utilization of the tides in the Bay of Fundy and Passamaquoddy Bay for the constant supply of reservoirs from which power could be generated. Mr. Cooper wishes to put such a project on a practical basis; and he secured the approval of the legislature of Maine at its last session, subject to the action of the voters to whom the question was referred at a special election. It was stated last month in reports from Maine that to execute the Cooper plan would cost about \$100,000,000, and that no financial assistance was asked from the State. We understand that ample supervisory authority is reserved by the State Government. It was expected that the proposal would be ratified at the polls; and reports on the 15th showed that the opposition had been slight. Private enterprise can of course find necessary capital and make distribution of electric power throughout New England, as elsewhere. But if a super-power enterprise were financed officially under the leadership of Massachusetts, with the other New England States coöperating, there might be many advantages that could not be gained by various detached private undertakings.

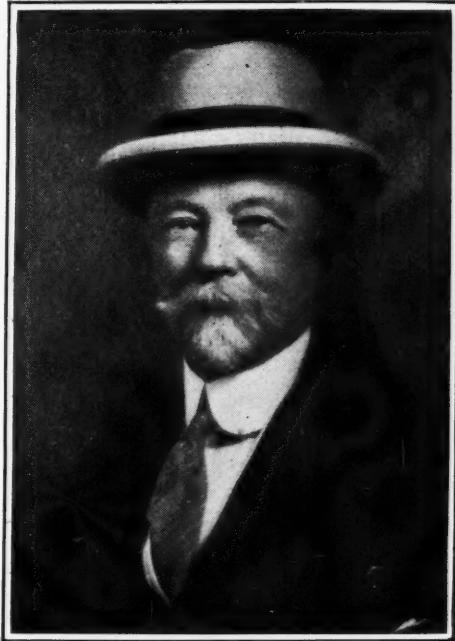
*New England's
Assets of Cli-
mate and Charm*

New England has never been more beautiful and inviting than during the past summer. In addition to the great automobile highways, the lesser roads that serve the remote villages and farming hamlets are improving all the time. There is to-day no township,

however distant and rustic, whether in the Green Mountains, or the White Mountains, or the Adirondacks, that does not make use of automobiles for its own local purposes. This has necessitated local road reconstruction. The changes within a few years in such respects have been astonishing. Neighborhoods that were in sad decadence less than ten years ago have taken hope and brightened up in the most gratifying fashion. Touch with the outer world stimulates them as the local population travels about; while the summer visitors bring money, profitable employment, and desirable neighbors into charming places that had been almost forgotten. A half century's partial eclipse of New England agriculture has resulted in the natural reforestation of immense areas; and the maturing of second-growth trees is not only supplying material for a new lumber industry but is also providing attractions for thousands of summer visitors who love the wooded hillsides. An admirable article from Mr. Charles Lathrop Pack, who has long been one of our foremost authorities and public-spirited leaders in conservation work, sums up the present-day activities of the various States in the direction of scientific forestry. New England in due time will follow the wise example of Switzerland, Baden, and other European States in making the forest resources of upland regions serve at the same time the purposes of river protection, of lumber supply, and of summer recreation for city visitors.

*Hope for
Eastern
Farming*

Western farmers, who are trying to vary their crops, would be surprised to see how modern-looking are the dairy farms of the better valley lands of Vermont as well as of Massachusetts and Connecticut. Grasses grow exceedingly well, and alfalfa is now thriving on thousands of New England farms. There are hundreds of brand-new silos in upper New England; and in favorable localities the Eastern corn crop this year is satisfactory. Agriculture in the State of New York, also, has had a favorable season. With a great variety of products, fruit takes a preëminent place in New York. Alfalfa, clover hay, and good pasturage support thousands of herds of dairy cattle; and under the energetic management of the dairymen's association, the farmers are better off than a few years ago, while the consumers in cities are receiving milk of satisfactory quality as distributed by the



HON. CHARLES LATHROP PACK, EMINENT
AUTHORITY ON CONSERVATION

(Mr. Pack's services in various public causes have been so great that it would be hard to enumerate them. He has been foremost as a leader in the forestry movement, and indefatigable in the promotion of national and international welfare)

companies through which the dairymen's coöperative societies market their supply. Our friends in the great farming States of the West sometimes forget that there is also an Eastern agriculture, and that it is to the permanent interest of the whole country that the farmers of New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia—practicing crop-rotation and permanent agriculture—should not be driven to poverty and desperation through ruthless competition of new lands speculatively employed.

*Railroads
and Rates
for Crops*

It is not sound policy from any standpoint to force the railroads to do long-haul business in agricultural products at unremunerative rates. The farming West can never grow at once rich and stable if it keeps its eyes fixed upon distant markets. Prosperity for farmers is to be found at home, rather than at the end of the rainbow. Massachusetts may not like to see the shoe industry move so fast to centers beyond the Mississippi River, but this is the thing that

the Western States should encourage. They should import industries, and export less wheat and meat. Freight rates at a profitable level will enable the railroads to give better service and to extend their branch lines. Rates suitably balanced will revive Eastern agriculture, while building up local markets for the farmers of the West. Just now there is a movement for bringing together the stockholders of a number of great Western railroad systems to support the demand for increased rates, in order to keep other lines from falling into the bankruptcy that has overtaken the great Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul system.

*Let the West
Buy Its Own
Roads*

These movements of security holders for protecting the railroad properties of the Northwest are centered in New York and the East. This is an unfortunate circumstance. It is the people of the Northwestern States who ought to be protecting the solvency and prosperity of these railroad properties. New York bankers as a class are excellent and trustworthy men, and not a few of them have acquired a surprising knowledge of railroad operation as well as of railroad finance; but it is not desirable for the Northwestern States that their railroad lines should be owned by Eastern investors, and controlled by Eastern boards of directors who are in turn selected by great banking houses and financiers of New York and Boston. The Northwest has for a long time past been rich enough to own the stocks and bonds of its own railroad systems; and it has made a very serious mistake in failing to see the desirability of assuming control of its major as well as its minor agencies of transportation. With Eastern investors owning the railroad stocks and bonds, and with Western politicians supporting fanatical but mistaken farm leaders in demanding a policy of confiscatory rates, the situation has been bad for all interests. It has led Western agriculture to pursue a short-sighted policy; and it has resulted in an unhealthy concentration and over-development of certain lines of manufacture in the East.

*Western
Freight
Rates*

On September 8 began in Chicago the hearings before the Interstate Commerce Commission in the matter of the application of the Western railroads for a 5 per cent. increase in freight rates. On the basis of the

present volume of business that is coming to these roads, it would be necessary to obtain an increase amounting to about 11 per cent. if the carriers in the territory west of the Mississippi were to obtain the "fair return" fixed by the Interstate Commerce Commission as $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. on the value of their property; \$181,000,000 of additional net earnings are needed to give the $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. and the rate increase now asked for by the roads will produce only \$82,000,000. The Northwestern roads in particular show a critical need of relief; in 1924 their earnings were only 3.18 per cent. and in the first half of 1925 at the rate of only 2.14 per cent. That the railroad managers were well advised in making their petition a very modest one is suggested by the violent opposition which immediately developed to an increase of even 5 per cent.

*The
Pooling
Proposal*

There was much discussion of the plan suggested by Mr. Mark W. Potter, formerly a member of the Commerce Commission and now one of the receivers of the St. Paul railway. Recognizing that the most serious obstacle to a general increase of freight rates over a wide territory was the fact that any appreciable increase would make certain prosperous roads earn more than the public wanted them to earn, Mr. Potter proposed that the \$82,000,000 of additional earnings produced by a 5 per cent. increase in freight rates should be redistributed among the Western carriers in the same proportion in which they failed to earn $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. At present only 11 of the 64 railroads in the Western district are earning the "fair return," but if the rate increase were allowed, some 29 would earn more than $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. There is a certain plausibility in this pooling suggestion but many of the Western roads oppose the plan on the ground that it tends to put a premium on inefficiency and amounts to an intervention in property rights. As earnings can not, under the Interstate Commerce law, be pooled except with the consent of the carriers, Mr. Potter's ingenious plan does not promise to go through.

*Railroads
Elsewhere
Prosper*

While the Western and, more acutely, the Northwestern, railroads have been going through exceedingly hard times, which brought some of the most important of them to a really critical condition, the rail-

road industry in the United States as a whole is more prosperous than it has been for nearly ten years. Industrially, nothing has seemed more ominous in America than the persistently critical condition of our transportation lines during practically all of the last decade. The rapid and very great increase in the cost of labor and materials made changes in the "cost of living" of the railroads that could not be cured with the promptness and effectiveness that would be insisted on by a mill worker or a coal miner in his personal problem. The taking over of the railroads by the Government, while in the opinion of many a necessary evil to save them from worse things, left them with problems to work out which have seemed at times too great to be solved and so hopeless as to point directly toward government ownership. The most recent income reports indicate, however, that these problems are being solved. The earnings for July last show a gain of 32 per cent. over those for July, 1924, and a return of 5.5 per cent. on the property valuation—measurably close to the "fair return" hoped for by the Commerce Commission. An important feature of this recovery is that it has been effected without any huge and abnormal volume of traffic. In July the 32 per cent. increase in net earnings was obtained from a traffic, measured in dollars, only 8.2 per cent. greater than the year before. Such figures point clearly to real advances in efficiency. It is worth noting, too, that the railroads form the one great industry in which there was not and could not be even isolated instances of war profiteering. These better operating results have been obtained in spite of extraordinary tax exactions; at present the American railroads pay out more in taxes than they pay in dividends.

Railroad Mileage at a Standstill But in spite of the splendid recovery of the transportation business and the striking figures of its current profits, the reports of new mileage do not indicate that the country's railroad system is going to increase in mileage substantially or even appreciably. During the past five years, the Commerce Commission has authorized the building of 3,780 miles of new road, and the abandonment of 2,474 miles of old road, a net gain of 1,033 miles in five years, with two years showing a net loss, and with the previous five years bringing a net loss in



HON. MARK WINSLOW POTTER, OF NEW YORK

(Mr. Potter, who is a prominent lawyer, has recently served upon the Interstate Commerce Commission at Washington, and is an authority upon questions of railroad administration)

mileage of nearly 4,000 miles—suggests that our transportation mileage has reached its virtual peak and that possibly there may never again be as many miles of railroad in the United States as there were in 1916, when the aggregate was 254,251. Obviously the gasoline-driven vehicles on motor highways are the most important cause of this rather astonishing situation. The figures quoted above compare with a net gain in mileage of 7,400 miles a year during the ten years 1880-1890, 3,100 miles a year in the next decade and 5,100 miles a year between 1900 and 1910.

Effects of Restricting Immigration

Our readers will remember that the new immigration law, signed by the President on May 26 of last year, went into effect at the beginning of the fiscal year and had therefore completed a year of operation with the end of June. The law that was revised, after some seven years of operation, had taken the census of 1910 as the basis for fixing 3 per cent. quotas on the principle of nationality. The law of 1924 goes back to the census of 1890 for the basis, and reduces the annual quota from each country

to 2 per cent., this arrangement to continue until July 1, 1927. The maximum immigration possible under the 1924 law is less than half that of the previous arrangement. As a matter of fact, the actual immigration for the first year under the new law seems to have resulted in a two-thirds reduction as compared with the previous year. The change in the census basis from 1910 to 1890 much increases the relative quotas for Western Europe and reduces those for Eastern and Southern Europe. Italy, Poland, and Russia are cut down almost to the point of exclusion. The Italian quota, for instance, for the past year, has been only 9 per cent. of what it was for the years immediately preceding. The restrictions do not apply to Canada, Mexico, and the West Indies, but undoubtedly the net result has been to cut down the immigration total very largely.

*Reactions
Upon
Europe*

The new system provides for increased inspection of immigrants in their home countries.

Selective processes will soon begin to show results in the form of decided improvement in the quality of newcomers. The policy of restriction is now accepted throughout the United States with no considerable dissent. Immigration across the Atlantic had, for a long time, been promoted as a valuable item of their business by the European steamship lines. They are now seeking to carry more travellers, and thus regain in large part what they have lost in third-class immigrant business. Meanwhile, the reactions in Europe of American restriction will prove to be not only important but favorable rather than otherwise. Europe needs considerable redistributions of population, and needs also much less of politics and militarism and much more of energetic economic development. The movement to America from most European countries has been stimulated in the past by governmental policies, and especially by the exactions of army service.

*France
Gains Poles
and Italians*

France has suffered most from the loss of young men in war, and from a tendency toward decline rather than gain in population. The rebuilding of France since the war has made a demand for labor that has largely been met by the convenient invasion of nearby Italian workers, of whom there are probably a million now in France, many of

whom are bringing their families to stay permanently. This movement is highly beneficial to both countries. The coal situation in France since the armistice is worth noting from several standpoints. The principal French coal mining districts were in the North, and were held by the Germans throughout the war, the mines having been damaged as much as possible. At the time of the armistice, it was estimated that it would take a number of years to restore these mines to full production. This has been accomplished much sooner than was expected, largely because of the influx of Polish mine workers, principally from Silesia. Trouble between Poles and Germans was driving these people away, and new conditions took them to France rather than to the United States. There are at least 75,000 of these Polish coal mine workers in the French mines, all of whom have come since 1920. More than 30,000 houses have been built for them, and they are bringing their families. France also has acquired control of the Lorraine coal mines; and her total coal production is now greater than before the war. A part of the trouble in the English coal industry results from the lessened demand across the Channel, due to the rehabilitation of the French mines. With peace assured, and with proper freedom of trade and traffic across boundary lines, Europe would be sufficiently occupied and busy at home.

*Debt
Settlements*

Mr. Simonds, in our present issue, makes extended comment upon the movement for adjustment of European debts to the United States. The settlement at Washington made with Belgium in August was accomplished in the most friendly spirit. The greater part of the sums loaned by the United States to Belgium came after the armistice. The arrangement for funding the Belgian debt recognizes a distinction, and makes allowances for interest payments upon the amount advanced during the war period. The French war debt commissioners sailed from France on Wednesday, September 26, headed by the Minister of Finance, M. Caillaux. There can be no doubt about the good-will of the people of the United States toward France, and the desire to see a debt-funding plan adopted that will be mutually advantageous, and creditable to the sagacity and foresight of the public men of both countries. ¹¹ The

only disturbing factor has been the insistence of English financiers upon making arrangements between England and the Continental countries that should bear some relation to settlements to be reached at Washington. All the antecedent circumstances have been totally dissimilar.

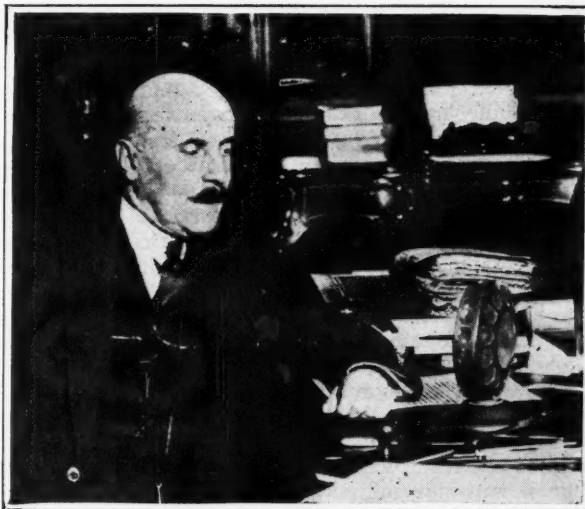
*Things
Not to be
Confused*

England and
France were en-
gaged jointly as

close partners in a long war in which failure would have been even more disastrous to England than to France. If France was saved by the coöperation of England, it is equally true that England was saved by the valor and the sacrifice of the French armies. Whether or not France owes England anything at all under the circumstances, is not a question that Americans are competent to discuss. There are fair-minded Frenchmen who feel that if there are any obligations left unsettled, as between London and Paris, payment should be in the other direction. For their mutual safety in the future, England and France must coöperate. They have complicated interests to safeguard, not only at home but all over the world. How they keep their partnership books is wholly their own affair, and the United States has no thought of meddling in these things. Great Britain, as a thoroughly solvent country, borrowed vast sums from British investors, and borrowed smaller sums from investors in the United States. In the handling of war debts it would be a reversal of all recognized principles if British investors should be regarded as preferred creditors, while American investors in English loans were asked to pay themselves.

*The
American
Position*

Relations of the United States to the war in Europe were in no sense identical with those of England, France, Belgium and Italy. Our actual coöperation during the last year and a half of the war represented a stupendous contribution. This supply of American men and materials turned the scales, ended the war, saved France, and, above all, saved



M. JOSEPH CAILLAUX, FRENCH FINANCE MINISTER

(M. Caillaux's trip to the United States as head of the French Debt Funding Commission is an event of great significance. This eminent finance authority was at one time a professor in the School of Political Science at Paris. He was Minister of Finance in the Cabinet of Waldeck-Rousseau from 1899 to 1902, and again in the Clemenceau Cabinet of 1906. He had long held that the best interests of France lay in finding a basis of economic and political accord with Germany and England, rather than in military alliances with Russia; and his peace efforts in the war period met with a punishment that was said to have ended his public career. But the demand for his services in the financial difficulties that France was encountering brought him to the front again, and he found himself in association with Painlevé and Briand as one of the three statesmen now dominating the affairs of France.)

the British Empire from destruction. For all of this vast outlay we have never thought of asking any compensation, direct or indirect. But when, in addition to all this, America made straight loans of large sums to European Governments there was reason to expect that the debtors would not seek to evade their obligations. The fact is that Americans have cared much less about the money involved than about the tone that has been taken by certain leaders of European opinion. Most shocking of all has been the constant attempt on the part of certain statesmen to mix up two totally distinct things. The handling of materials and men among the Allied group that opposed Germany and Austria naturally involved much war financiering and war book-keeping. But, when the war was over, the pretense that one Allied treasury owed money to another, on the strength of book-keeping balances, might well seem to be technical rather than fundamentally sound. The thing that offended Americans was the persistent attempt to treat the loans of the United States as something to be repudiated under cover of a European cancellation of interallied accounts.

*Our
Historic Debt
to France*

The independence of the United States, with all its magnificent results, is due to French assistance in the years 1780 and 1781. Fully half of the army that moved under the command of Washington and Rochambeau for the capture of Cornwallis' army at Yorktown in Virginia was made up of French regiments of the finest quality. A great French fleet under Admiral De Grasse, sailing into the Chesapeake, cut off the escape of Cornwallis' army after the French fleet had met the British fleet in a fierce encounter and driven the British ships away. In all the annals of military coöperation there is nothing finer than the support accorded Washington by such veterans as Rochambeau and such high-spirited and loyal young men as Lafayette. But it was not military and naval aid alone that France rendered in the critical period of the Revolutionary War. Our continental currency had become absolutely worthless. Washington could not pay his troops or buy supplies. The separate Colonies did not respond to requisitions either for men or money, and the Continental Congress was helpless. Under these circumstances, France loaned real money in sums that saved the situation, even assisting us, through guaranty of repayment (when the French Treasury was low), to borrow sums of money from the Dutch and the Spaniards.

*Character
of the French
Support*

It was not merely that France was at war against England, and helped us on that account. Spain also was at war against England, but was playing the Spanish game exclusively, and was not disposed to help us in the least. At a number of junctures the French might have settled their own affairs advantageously enough with the English, leaving the United States in the lurch with our Revolution a total failure. But they stood by us with a loyalty to Washington, to Franklin, and to the principles that we had set forth in the Declaration of Independence, that was far above selfish intrigue or cold calculation. Many of the officers who had helped us so generously were destined only a few years later to be the victims of the Reign of Terror that formed the darkest chapter in the French Revolution. It is true that we paid back to France the sums of money that were loaned to us in the achievement

of our independence. But these sums were small in comparison with the sums that France spent on our behalf. Frenchmen of the future will not fail to see that in 1918 we made due recompense for the larger services in the Revolution. After such chapters of history as have associated the American and French republics together, in generous deeds that are creditable to human nature, there should be no friction over the mere details of a financial adjustment. France wishes to meet every honorable obligation, and the United States wishes to uphold a well-earned reputation for generosity as well as for fair play.

*The World's
Metropolis*

The year 1925 will stand out as notable in the history of New York City. It completes a century of immense progress, and opens another of bewildering possibilities. The great impetus came with the opening of the Erie Canal just a hundred years ago. Taking into account population, commerce, industry, and concentrated wealth, New York is now unquestionably the foremost city of the world. Within the past quarter-century great acquisitions of population have come to New York from southern Italy, from the Jews of Russia, and from other countries of eastern and southern Europe. Dr. Walter Laidlaw, who is our most studious authority upon the population elements of New York City, contributes some interesting data to our present issue. He realizes that under the new immigration law New York City will not be likely to grow so fast in the next decade or two as in the recent past. There is good reason to hope that the present vast city population will rapidly become American in spirit and feeling, in spite of its alien racial origins. The development of New York in other respects is even more remarkable than its growth in population. Its commerce has become stupendous in volume, and it is by far the world's greatest seaport. In our series of articles this month will be found a statement of the plans for the treatment of the port in connection with New Jersey.

*Building
and
Real Estate*

In real-estate finance, and in the construction of buildings, New York is going forward more rapidly at the present time than ever before. Accomplished architects are vying with one another in planning lofty buildings of original design and of monumental

grandeur. Within the space of the past twelve months, the people of the State of New York have invested over \$2,000,000,000 in real-estate mortgages, of which sum more than 70 per cent. represents money that has been made available for the tremendous building operations in New York City that are described in an article by Mr. Howard Florance.

*New York
under
Home Rule*

The public affairs of such a metropolis ought to command the services of the best business men of the day, and should not be subject to the ups and downs of petty politics. Under recent Home Rule legislation, now upheld by the courts, the city will be far more independent in making and administering its own laws than formerly. The control of details by the legislature at Albany is ended. The Board of Estimate and the Board of Aldermen become the two branches of a new and powerful Municipal Assembly. Recognizing the significance of the final triumph of the principle of self-government within the municipal bounds of New York City, Hon. Charles E. Hughes contributes to our present issue an article that shows the several stages of slow historic development through which the movement has made its way. With emancipation from the absentee overlordship of Albany, and with concentration of control at home, New York City will now have a chance to demonstrate its capacity to govern itself wisely and well. The budget, in twenty years, has grown from less than \$100,000,000 a year to approximately \$400,000,000. On Monday, September 14, more than one million school children were enrolled at the opening of the fall term, all under one school system which is under municipal authority. The annual expenditure for education and similar services is approaching \$100,000,000. The funded debt of the city keeps close to the legal 10 per cent. limit on assessed valuation of property, and is well above a billion dollars.

*Hopeful
Prospects*

Yet New York City is thoroughly solvent; its people are wholly employed; and, on the surface of things, there are few indications of poverty or distress. One reads of hold-ups and crimes, but the every-day conditions that meet the visitor are those of good order, good conduct, and an alert, optimistic multitude equally intent upon work and

play. With the rapidly increasing suburban tendency, there is on foot under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation, and with the coöperation of national and local authorities, a scientific mapping out of the whole region immediately tributary to New York, in which there are now ten million people. Mr. W. B. Shaw writes of this Regional Planning in one of our current articles. Although situated on the very rim of the country, New York is in many ways a national center, and a wise conduct of its affairs is a matter of much more than local concern. Fifty years ago there were current predictions that Chicago or St. Louis might acquire a momentum of growth that would by this time have resulted in a Mississippi Valley metropolis equal to New York or even greater. But as yet such prophecies have not been realized, even in tendency.

*New York's
Advantages*

There was also anxiety in New York business circles lest transportation conditions might have the effect to redistribute business along the Atlantic seaboard, with Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Norfolk increasing relatively at the expense of the port at the mouth of the Hudson. These other ports, with many smaller ones, will doubtless increase their future business steadily; but New York's priority is assured for a good while to come. The variety of its advantages in other respects has a bearing upon New York's business prosperity. Not the least of these is a delightful climate and a clear atmosphere. Anthracite coal has had much to do with the past growth of New York City. As an amusement center, New York now makes London and Paris seem provincial, although thirty or forty years ago New York was hardly superior to Cincinnati or Chicago in its musical and theatrical opportunities, and was not to be mentioned in comparison with Paris, Munich, Dresden, Vienna, or Milan. In its hotel accommodations, New York is so far ahead that there is no rival to be mentioned. All great cities have been enlarging their educational facilities, but no other has made recent progress of such magnitude and variety as New York.

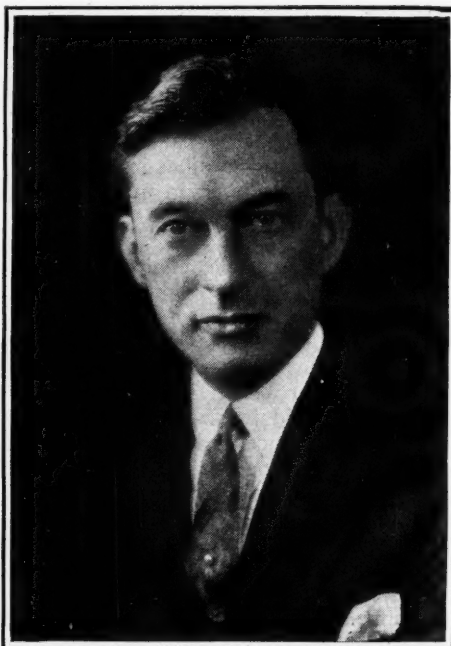
*Progress in
Municipal
Government*

Undoubtedly the population of New York is more intelligent in its demand for good schools, clean streets, efficient policing

and capable municipal government than in any former period. The notorious misgovernment, which Bryce was discovering in his studies for the "American Commonwealth" forty years ago, no longer characterizes New York City. Under Mayor Mitchel and his department heads, New York had, perhaps, the best government of any large city in the world. It would be inaccurate and unjust to say that under two terms of Mayor Hylan the management of municipal affairs has hopelessly degenerated. Much of the work of the borough governments is not unsatisfactory, and some of the metropolitan departments are well administered. Undoubtedly, however, New York ought to have a higher degree of business efficiency and general intelligence in the control of its municipal affairs. There is admittedly great room for improvement.

*The
Pending
Contest*

In the pending electoral contest, although Mr. Waterman's candidacy for mayor is wholly to serve the city rather than to benefit the Republican party, circumstances have tended to give politics an undue emphasis. On the Democratic side, the fight in the primaries on Tuesday, September 15, was most bitter. Governor Smith took the lead in the movement to defeat Mayor Hylan's candidacy for a third term. State Senator James J. Walker was supported by Governor Smith and the



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HON. JAMES J. WALKER

(Who with the support of Tammany defeated Mr. Hylan for the Democratic mayoralty nomination in New York)

Tammany Hall organization, while Mayor Hylan's chief reliance was upon the loyalty of the Democrats of his home borough of Brooklyn. For the first time since the enactment of the primary election law, there was a real contest among voters for a mayoralty nomination in New York City. The general expectation that Walker would defeat Hylan was sustained. The result showed overwhelming victory for Walker in Manhattan Borough, and decisive defeat for Hylan even in Brooklyn. The total Walker majority exceeded 90,000 and was acquiesced in by the regular Democratic leaders in Brooklyn who had supported Hylan. The Hearst newspapers, however, announced at once that there would be an independent ticket in the field and that Mayor Hylan would not fail to take his place at the head of it. This would result in a three-cornered contest, the outcome of which would necessarily be in doubt until the votes were counted on the night of November 3. The opposition to Mr. Waterman in the Republican primary was not important, and his two defeated competitors promptly announced their hearty acceptance of the result.



HON. FRANK D. WATERMAN RECEIVING THE RETURNS WHICH TOLD OF HIS NOMINATION FOR MAYOR OF NEW YORK, IN THE REPUBLICAN PRIMARY ON SEPTEMBER 15



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PRESIDENT COOLIDGE RETURNS TO WASHINGTON, AFTER A VACATION OF ELEVEN WEEKS ON THE MASSACHUSETTS COAST

(The President and Mrs. Coolidge were met at the station by Secretaries Jardine, Hoover and Kellogg. Senator Butler—in the rear—was a member of the presidential party)

**Democratic
Politics
Involved**

It was believed in all political circles that if Hylan's defeat by Walker were not too overwhelming, the supporters of Mayor Hylan would disregard the Democratic primaries and run their ticket independently. The election occurs on Tuesday, November 3. With the Republicans and non-partisan municipal reformers supporting Mr. Waterman, and with the Democrats divided in support between Walker and a Hylan ticket, the opportunity for the citizens' movement headed by Mr. Waterman would seem fairly promising. It is well to remember that on the Republican side there is no political game involved, but only the efficient government of New York City, regardless of party. On the Democratic side, there is much at stake apart from municipal affairs. Governor Smith's friends have continued to declare that their candidate would be nominated for the presidency in 1928. The Governor is the idol of the Tammany Democracy. Mayor Hylan, though a Democrat, has had for his chief backing and support the newspapers owned by William R. Hearst, namely the *New York American* and the *New York Journal*. In its headlines of September 15,

the *American* declared: "Smith's part in fight eliminates him as national figure." In the bitter contest between the political forces captained by Governor Smith, and the influences dominated by Mr. Hearst, Mayor Hylan has appeared as a rather subordinate figure. He had vainly hoped for support from both sides, his wish being to keep the mayoralty out of the larger game of politics.

**The President
Returns to
Washington**

President Coolidge had not neglected public business during his eleven weeks of sojourn on the Massachusetts coast; but he had undoubtedly found much benefit in the change from the debilitating summer climate of Washington to the invigorating breezes of the North Shore. He returned to the capital on September 10, fully prepared to meet various problems of importance, and carrying with him a quiet but firm mastery that everyone now recognizes. Before leaving Swampscott he had held conferences with Congressional leaders which resulted in the assurance that a tax reduction bill would be ready before the opening of Congress on December 7. Exact details cannot be anticipated, but confidence



● Henry Miller

HON. DWIGHT F. DAVIS

(Acting Secretary of War in the absence of Mr. Weeks)

regarding tax reduction has evidently stimulated the general business activity that now promises well for the coming season in spite of the coal strike. The success of the debt adjustment with Belgium has given enhanced prestige to the present conduct of our national affairs, and has strengthened the belief that terms of settlement with France may be reached without misunderstandings or serious delay. It is expected that the recent serious illness of Secretary Weeks will lead to his resignation from the Cabinet in the near future. Meanwhile, for some time past, the War Department has been carried on under Hon. Dwight F. Davis as Acting Secretary.

Aviation Troubles

While the President was still at Swampscott, unforeseen events had intensified the long pending differences at Washington and in the country over aviation as related to the Army and Navy. General Mitchell, as head of the Army's air service, had been so unrestrained in his criticisms that he had some time ago been superseded at Washington and sent to command the flying station at San Antonio, Texas. He had insistently argued that our aviation affairs were badly

managed, and that the first step of progress ought to consist in the adoption of a plan of unified control. While Army and Navy professionalism at Washington had frowned upon Mitchell, public opinion and the business judgment of the country had been strongly upon the side of the outspoken critic who was also foremost in practical experience. Evidently our aviation services were not making brilliant progress; but the discussion had quieted down. Then came the Navy's attempts to show enterprise by performing stunts, with disastrous results that reopened the controversy.

Wreckage of the *Shenandoah*

Arctic attempts had been interesting but somewhat disappointing—not from lack of bravery and skill on the part of American flyers so much as from inadequacy of material. Great hopes had been centered upon the development of dirigibles. The United States had acquired one from Germany, renamed the *Los Angeles*, and had built one named the *Shenandoah*. On September 2, under command of Lieut.-Com. Zachary Lansdowne, with some forty-three men, the *Shenandoah* took the air from Lakehurst, New Jersey, to make a tour of a number of Middle-Western States. Encountering a sudden storm in Ohio, the great airship made an almost incredibly rapid shift of altitude, rising to a height of 7,000 feet, and then came to earth in three parts, one of them some miles distant from the others. This immense dirigible was filled with non-combustible helium gas, a rare commodity of which only small quantities are available. There is a difference of opinion whether the accident was due to the violence of air currents in a terrific gale of wind, or to the failure of escape valves to let out the helium gas with sufficient freedom. Fourteen men, including Commander Zachary Lansdowne, were killed; two others were seriously injured, and twenty-seven escaped unhurt. Important plans had been announced for the undertaking of a commercial service of dirigibles, and it was expected that the Government would coöperate by leasing the *Los Angeles*. Mr. Henry Ford's engineers have made plans for an all-metal dirigible; and the sudden accident to the *Shenandoah*, instead of causing the abandonment of so-called "lighter-than-air" types, may result in the great improvement of such air vessels and their more rapid utilization.



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COMMANDER RODGERS AND THE CREW OF THE NAVAL PLANE WHICH FLEW FROM SAN FRANCISCO ALMOST TO HAWAII, AND WERE LOST AT SEA FOR TEN DAYS

(From left to right are: W. H. Bowlin; Lieut. B. J. Connoll; Lieut. Commander John Rodgers, who commanded the expedition; S. B. Pope, Aviation Pilot; and O. G. Stantz, Radio mechanic)

***Attempted
Flight to
Hawaii***

On August 31, two naval seaplanes left the air station at San Francisco for a non-stop flight of 2100 nautical miles to the Hawaiian Islands. At intervals of perhaps 200 miles, along the course to be pursued, naval vessels were arranged on patrol duty. One of the two planes, after a few hours' flight, was unable to proceed; but the other, under Commander Rodgers, with four comrades, after a flight of some 1800 miles, ran out of gasoline. Through an error in calculation, Commander Rodgers landed about fifty miles away from the line of patrol, and therefore missed the naval vessel from which he was expecting speedy rescue. Without gasoline, he was unable to operate his radio. Although he could receive messages, he could send none. Search on the part of the Navy was unavailing, and hope was almost abandoned, when, after floating ten days the plane was found in the vicinity of Kauai in the Hawaiian group. The men had suffered from insufficient water and food, but they were all alive and quickly restored.

***Mitchell
Makes
Attack***

Meanwhile the country was overjoyed at the rescue of Commander Rodgers and his comrades, and the Navy Department in particular was elated. Criticism had been

unsparing, and Colonel Mitchell's opportunity to gain revived publicity for his views had not been neglected. He went so far in aspersing what he regarded as the stupidity, incompetence, and narrow selfishness of the authorities at Washington having control of aeronautics, that he would seem to have been deliberately seeking a trial by court-martial for breach of discipline. Undoubtedly Colonel Mitchell is dead in earnest, and believes that he is rendering patriotic service in calling attention to the things that he criticizes. Discipline is necessary in war-time, while freedom of discussion has its advantages in time of peace. Nobody confounds Colonel Mitchell's reflections upon his superiors in rank with his views about aviation policy.

***A Commission
of
Inquiry***

President Coolidge promptly gained the approbation of the country by appointing a commission to investigate the aeronautic situation on broad lines, requesting it to report late in November, in time for the President to avail himself of the commission's recommendations before the beginning of the Congressional term. Secretary Wilbur of the Navy and Acting Secretary Dwight F. Davis of the War Department had sent a joint letter suggesting the appointment of



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**COL. WILLIAM MITCHELL, FOREMOST AMERICAN AUTHORITY
ON MILITARY AVIATION**

(Col. Mitchell's recent criticisms of aviation policy at Washington have resulted in a presidential commission of inquiry, although he has subjected himself to possible army discipline)

such a board, and the President at once approved, named the members, and asked them to meet him at the White House on Thursday, September 17. The personnel of the board as announced made a highly favorable impression. First named is Major-Gen. James G. Harbord, now retired; and next is Rear-Admiral Frank F. Fletcher, also on the retired list. The other members of the board are as follows: Dwight W. Morrow, New York banker; Howard E. Coffin, eminent engineer and aeronautical expert; United States Senator Hiram Bingham of Connecticut; Representatives R. Vinson of Georgia and James S. Parker of New York; Judge Arthur C. Denison of Michigan, and Mr. William F. Durand of California, who is president of the Institute of Mechanical Engineers. Each one of these men possesses special as well as general qualifications for serving on this board of inquiry. It is to be hoped that they may find themselves reaching important agreements, and that these may be expressed in such a way as to lead to the adoption of aviation policies at Washington that will inspire confidence.

**Who Will
Succeed
Mr. LaFollette?**

Among numerous political contests of a more or less local character in primary elections held on September 15, there was none outside of the New York City affair that was watched with so much interest as Wisconsin's selection of candidates for the United States Senate to fill the vacancy caused by death of Mr. LaFollette. In the Republican primaries Robert M. LaFollette, Junior, won a sweeping victory, having almost 30,000 more votes than all his competitors put together. Mr. Roy P. Wilcox, who represented what may be called orthodox national Republicanism, was expected to run independently in the election, in order to carry on the movement for a readjustment of party lines in the State. As it

happens, the Republican name and emblem in Wisconsin have come under the control of the third party Progressives. Curious though it may seem, it is a very difficult matter for the regular Republicans of Wisconsin to recover the official right to use the word "Republican" as relating to the national party that is known by that name elsewhere in the United States. The election will be held on September 29, and Mr. Wilcox will probably make a much better showing than in the primary of the 15th. Mr. Francis E. McGovern, who ran behind Mr. Wilcox, but polled a considerable vote, may be expected to lead his followers into the Wilcox camp. The Democratic nominee is Hon. William George Bruce.

**France
Faces
Great Issues**

The French Ministry held an important session with M. Caillaux, just before he embarked for the United States. He presented his ideas upon the adjustment of the American debt, and had the satisfaction of being unanimously supported by all of his colleagues. He informed American and English newspaper men that he was pro-



ROBERT M. LaFOLLETTE, JR.



ROY P. WILCOX



FRANCIS E. MCGOVERN

THE THREE CANDIDATES IN THE REPUBLICAN PRIMARIES FOR THE SENATE SEAT VACATED BY THE DEATH OF SENATOR LaFOLLETTE.

ceeding to Washington to "confer with gentlemen" and to "make a gentlemen's proposition." Meanwhile, the Foreign Minister, M. Briand, was giving the closest attention to the progress of negotiations with England and Germany, as the terms of the security agreement were approaching completion to the last detail. Underlying the security agreement is, in the first place, a solemn recognition of the fact that the boundary lines between France and Germany are fixed permanently and finally. Next is the full understanding that any future question of boundaries between Germany and Poland must proceed by peaceful negotiations, with arbitration under the auspices of the League of Nations as a last resort. France wants all the money she can possibly get from Germany for reparations; but what she needs far more than payment for past injury is such certainty of future peace that disarmament can be safely undertaken and economic prosperity sought with optimism and undivided attention. With Briand seeking to conclude the security arrangement, and Caillaux hoping to adjust the debt problem, Premier Painlevé was giving his special attention, along with the War Minister and the professional army heads, to the stubborn and exasperating war in North Africa. Reports from the seat of conflict are confusing, and the time is short before

the rainy season will check military activities. The French Chambers are soon to meet, and the continuance of the Painlevé Ministry is probably dependent upon good news from Africa, satisfactory news from Geneva, Berlin and London, and encouraging reports from Washington. It is unfortunate that withdrawal of French troops from German territory, after six years of occupation, has had to be accompanied by a warlike invasion elsewhere.

China and the World

American attention was directed to China's affairs by the plans for a conference under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University, beginning on September 18, and by the approach of the international gathering in China to deal with the customs question and with that of extra-territoriality, which means foreign jurisdiction over foreigners on Chinese soil. While China's students and scholars were protesting against foreign interference in their nation's affairs, the whole world was ardently wishing that China's leaders would get together and assume effective authority. The situation in Shanghai and Canton, though much improved within recent weeks, has nevertheless been a continued source of anxiety. Whether or not the anti-foreign crisis there is over, can only be conjectured. Meanwhile, conferences will have a stabilizing effect.

A MONTH'S NOTABLE HAPPENINGS

SUMMARIZING EVENTS FROM AUGUST 15 TO SEPTEMBER 14, 1925

[The reader of newspapers is often confused by the wealth of material that is laid before him. He finds it difficult to follow the thread of news developments from day to day. The following chronicle of a month's happenings may help to give him a more discriminating vision of the course of events.—THE EDITOR]

I. IN THE FIELD OF ECONOMICS

August 15.—Edmund Stinnes, son of Hugo, gives half his stock in the Aga Motor Works to his employees, having failed to obtain from the banks a loan of 2,000,000 gold marks for running expenses.

August 18.—Debt-funding delegates at Washington agree that Belgium shall pay to the United States \$727,830,500 over a period of 62 years; \$556,050,500 is on post-armistice debt, and \$171,780,000 on pre-armistice obligations; interest will run on the post-war debt.

August 21.—A British seamen's strike spreads from Australia to England.

August 25.—The Department of Labor announces that living costs are now about 75 per cent. above 1913; the peak was reached in June, 1920, when the increase amounted to 116 per cent. over 1913.

August 24.—At New York, a baggage and expressmen's strike is begun to secure an eight-hour day at present wages; the companies clear out all traffic and stop business; trunks are handled by taxicabs and other means.

August 25.—The last French troops withdraw from the Ruhr, leaving only a small detachment of civilians of the International Shipping Commission at Düsseldorf; German obligations under the Dawes plan have been met.

August 26.—Britain agrees to accept from France sixty-two annual instalments of £12,500,000 in settlement of her war debt of £623,000,000; this means an interest rate of 2 per cent. and total payments of £775,000,000 instead of about £1,800,000,000; Britain makes the settlement subject to American refunding of the French debt on proportionately the same terms.

British registered unemployed increase 29,000 in a week, to a total of 1,298,000.

August 27.—The United Mine Workers of America declare an anthracite coal strike, effective September 1, which will put 158,000 men out of work, and close about 828 mines and 272 collieries, mostly in Pennsylvania.

August 29.—French exports for the first half of 1925 exceed imports by 2,787,862,000 francs; 1924 excess was only 1,383,726,000.

The Department of Agriculture at Washington estimates the beet-sugar acreage of three European countries, Canada, and the United States as 5,749,900, a decrease of 124,776 acres.

The Federal Bureau of Mines reports that crude petroleum production in the United States in 1924

was 713,940,000 barrels, a decrease of 18,467,000 barrels from 1923.

August 30.—Germany completes full payment of the first annuity under the Dawes plan to Agent General Gilbert at Berlin; the total amounts to 1,000,000,000 gold marks.

The United States Treasury announces it has been paid by Germany during the year of Dawes plan operation \$18,000,000, of which \$14,705,154 is on account of the Rhine army of occupation costs; about \$3,500,000 is to cover American claims, now being adjusted.

Kentucky reports the worst drought in many years, and crops and live stock are considerably reduced; other Southern States suffer likewise.

September 1.—Mexico starts a new central bank of issue; the Banco de Mexico, S. H., has a capitalization of 100,000,000 pesos, of which the Government retains 51 per cent. and will issue paper money up to 10,000,000 pesos.

New Jersey refuses to go further with the Delaware River Bridge between Camden and Philadelphia until Pennsylvania permits toll charges by New Jersey.

September 2.—The Australian Senate ratifies the Canadian commercial trade agreement with an amendment raising the percentage of material and labor entitling British imports to a preferential tariff from 25 per cent. to 75 per cent.

Maj.-Gen. Frank McIntyre inspects Dominican customs under the receivership of W. E. Pulliam.

September 3.—A British Coal Commission is named, composed of Sir Herbert Louis Samuel, Sir William Henry Beveridge, Gen. Sir Herbert Alexander Lawrence, and Kenneth Lee.

Jugoslavia and Austria conclude a commercial treaty based on most-favored-nation clause and mutual reduction of tariffs.

German potash sales for the first half of 1925 amount to 730,000 tons, three times those for the same period last year; sales for the year 1913 were 520,000 tons.

September 7.—The National Industrial Conference Board reports a net reduction of immigration of 68 per cent., under the 2 per cent. quota law, during the year ended June 30.

September 8.—A mid-European free trade conference is held at Vienna, on economic coöperation between Austria and succession states.

September 10.—New England Governors hold a second conference and decide on measures to meet the coal strike (see page 342).

Illinois and Missouri districts suffering from drought are relieved by cyclonic storms; in Tennessee there are destructive forest fires along the Unaka and Buffalo Mountains.

September 11.—Governor Gifford Pinchot of Pennsylvania invites coal miners and operators to confer with him; both sides accept.

September 13.—The effects of prohibition are published in a series of reports by the Federal Council of Churches; increased disrespect for law is offset by improvement in economic conditions.

II. DATA ON AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

August 15.—Wisconsin Democrats name William George Bruce, of Milwaukee, for United States Senator; the primary is to be held September 15, the special election September 29.

August 21.—Gen. Lincoln C. Andrews names twenty-four Federal District Prohibition Administrators; eighteen were already in service, five are former army officers, and one a railroad executive; the office of chief of general agents is dropped (E. C. Yellowley), and Walton C. Green, of Boston, is appointed chief prohibition investigator.

August 26.—The Senate subcommittee on Public Lands begins at Salt Lake City an investigation of the public-domain problem; national cattle and sheep growing organizations are heard first.

Secretary Davis, of the Department of Labor, returns to Washington from Europe, where he inspected the successful new immigrant examining system.

The Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America decide to boycott Connecticut because of a one-man censorship and confiscatory tax law.

August 30.—The Senate Committee on Public Lands hears Col. H. M. Albright defend his administration of Yellowstone Park.

August 31.—Thomas F. Cooper is sworn in as Chief of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the Department of Agriculture, succeeding Dr. Henry C. Taylor, resigned.

Bert E. Haney (Dem., Ore.) refuses to resign from the Shipping Board at the request of President Coolidge, who is said to resent his efforts to remove Admiral Leigh C. Palmer, president of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

Cattlemen at Helena, Mont., before the Senate Public Lands Committee state that national forest areas cover much land that never has been timbered and that homesteaders sell out to big ranchers rather than settle.

September 2.—The New York Court of Appeals holds the Home Rule act and amendment constitutional, reversing the Appellate Division and sustaining the State Supreme Court.

September 4.—Massachusetts figures are published which show that there are 1,406,065 legal voters, of whom 245,795 are in Boston; there is an increase of 13,481 over 1924.

September 5.—Col. William Mitchell, at San Antonio, Texas, criticizes the administration of national defense and says recent aviation disasters "are the direct result of incompetency, criminal negligence and a most treasonable administration by the War and Navy Departments."

September 6.—The Senate Public Lands Committee hears Pacific cattlemen at Medford, Ore.,

testify that over 50 per cent. of stockmen have been driven into bankruptcy and 75 per cent. of the remainder are under heavy debt.

September 10.—President and Mrs. Coolidge return to Washington, after a summer vacation of eleven weeks in Massachusetts.

At Pendleton, Ore., livestock spokesmen argue for greater permanency of range privileges on Government land and for net revenues to be given to the local States.

September 11.—Com. John Rodgers is promoted to be Assistant Chief of the Bureau of Naval Aeronautics for his success in bringing the seaplane *PN-9 No. 1* to port in flight from San Francisco to Hawaii.

September 12.—President Coolidge appoints a group of experts to investigate the aircraft situation.

September 14.—At New York, 100 Chinamen are seized and held for deportation; the On Leong and Hip Sing Tongs sign a peace agreement to end a recent wave of Chinese murders.

The Department of Agriculture approves the merger of the Armour-Morris packing plants in Chicago.

A Bay of Fundy power project is approved by Maine voters. (see page 344.)

September 15.—The New York primaries result in Republican nomination of Frank D. Waterman and Democratic victory by James J. Walker over Mayor Hylan.

In Wisconsin Republican primaries, Robert M. LaFollette, Jr., wins by 30,000 majority over all three opponents with a 90,000 lead over Wilcox; Democrats name William George Bruce.

Bids are opened for eight new air mail routes; seventeen proposals are made.



THE AMERICAN FLEET LEAVES AUSTRALIA

III. CHIEF POINTS OF FOREIGN POLITICAL INTEREST

August 20.—In Havana, Armando Andre y Alvarado, publisher of the newspaper *El Dia*, is assassinated; the journal had been opposing President Machado's attempt to clean up vice.

Leon Trotsky is appointed Chief of the Economic Council in Soviet Russia.

August 23.—Seven men are executed for the murder of Sir Lee Stack, late Governor General of the Sudan, on November 19, 1924.

August 24.—Dr. Joseph Wirth, former German Chancellor, resigns from the Centrist (Catholic) party.

August 31.—The Chilean people approve the new Constitution drafted by President Alessandri and a special commission; parliamentary and presidential elections are now in order.

September 1.—The Bolivian Congress annuls the election of José Gabino Villanueva as President; and President Saavedra, who has held over, will transfer the office to Felipe Guzman, President of the Senate, new elections will be held in December.

September 4.—The Turkish Government orders all Dervish monasteries closed and all titles of Sheiks and Dervishes abolished; the turban is prohibited to be worn, except by priests, and civilian officials must wear European dress.

In Nicaragua, General Alfredo Rivas agrees to surrender to the Government the fortress of La Loma, at Managua, in which he has incarcerated prominent Liberal Cabinet officials.

September 5.—The Canadian Parliament is dissolved by Premier MacKenzie King, who will seek a new mandate in general elections on October 29, on issues of transportation, immigration, taxation, and the status of the Senate.

September 7.—Gen. Prince Maurizio Gonzaga is appointed chief of the Fascist Militia, succeeding the late General Gandolfo.

September 10.—Belgium deports a score of Communist agitators.

September 11.—The Legislative Assembly of New South Wales passes a bill to abolish capital punishment.

IV. MOVEMENTS IN THE MOROCCAN CONFLICT

August 15.—French troops capture 5,000 rebel tribesmen at Sarsar Heights, and the last problem is removed where French and Spanish forces have joined.

August 26.—Marshal Petain takes supreme command.

August 27.—French troops defeat the Riflians in the Branes territory and capture the Jebel Amesef Ridge.

September 4.—The Spanish zone becomes active, with strong artillery attacks at Alhucemas by combined French and Spanish fleets and bombardment by the air forces.

September 6.—Riflian tribesmen under Abd-el-Krim attack Issoual in force, but fail to capture any ground.

September 8.—Spanish troops land at the Bay of Alhucemas.

September 13.—Advancing French troops in Morocco conclude negotiations for submission of all natives in the upper Ouergha territory.

V. NOTES ON INTERNATIONAL POLITICS

August 17.—The Prince of Wales arrives at Buenos Aires, Argentina, after a long visit in Africa.

August 18.—The Peking Government invites the foreign powers to attend a conference on Chinese customs beginning October 26.

August 19.—The Mongolian Government is reported having deported Roy Chapman Andrews and his Third Asiatic Expedition for stirring up anti-Bolshevistic sentiment; Mr. Andrews, at Peking, denies the report and says he has discovered new dinosaur eggs and penetrated to the Altai Mountains.

August 20.—At Munyang, in the Chinese Province of Szechwan, eight British missionaries, including five women and Bishop H. W. K. Mowll, have been captured by bandits.

At Helsingfors, an agreement is signed for the suppression of alcohol smuggling among Finland, Sweden, Norway, Poland, Germany, Denmark, Russia, Esthonia, Latvia, and Danzig.

August 26.—The text of the latest French note to Germany on boundary security is published; it concludes with the statement that "the French Government, in agreement with their allies, have now the honor to invite the German Government to enter into negotiations . . . which they for their part earnestly trust will result in the conclusion of a definitive treaty."

The Chinese-Russian conference agreed on May 31, 1924, is opened at Peking; the Soviet Ambassador to China, M. Lew Milailovitch Karakhan, is scheduled to return to Moscow.

August 29.—The British Government resumes relations with Mexico; Norman King is temporary chargé at Mexico City for Britain, while Alfonso de Rosenzweig Diaz acts for Mexico at London.

John B. Stetson presents his credentials at Warsaw as American Minister to Poland.

August 30.—A conference of the American and Mexican Federations of Labor ends at Washington, with an agreement that they will encourage closer supervision of emigration in the Western Hemisphere to prevent the movement of undesirable population elements.

September 1.—An international conference on alcoholism is opened at Geneva, with 100 delegates representing fourteen governments and twenty-four nations.

Walter P. Cooke, of Buffalo is appointed, for five years, President of the Arbitral Tribunal of Interpretation to help effectuate the Dawes plan.

September 2.—The thirty-fifth session of the League Council meets at Geneva to consider the problems of Mosul, Polish mail boxes and munition factories at Danzig, release of unused Austrian loan, and minorities and mandates.

September 3.—The State Department publishes the text of the nine-power identic notes of September 4 in answer to China's note of June 24; the reply demands stability in China.

September 4.—The German Government names Prof. Erich Kaufman, of the International Law Department of Bonn University as its representative at the Hague Arbitration Court.

September 7.—The Sixth Assembly of the League of Nations is opened at Geneva; Senator Raoul Dandurand, of Canada, is elected President.

Mexican military authorities intervene at Atlixco, Puebla, to save the lives of Dr. John J. Morton and his family from Agrarians.

Great Britain announces that Sir Ronald MacLeay, Lieut. Col. Sidney Cornwallis Peel, and K. D. Stewart will act for her at the Chinese customs conference at Peking, October 26.

The Japanese Government decides to withdraw reservations on the League's White Slave protocol of 1921 which would have excluded mandate islands and territories and made the age limit eighteen instead of twenty-one; the protocol was ratified June 9.

September 10.—French Foreign Minister Briand invites Germany to consider the several drafts of the Rhine security compact at a meeting of Foreign Ministers about October 1.

September 13.—Rev. Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick preaches to League delegates at Geneva on the text "All they that take the sword shall perish with the sword"; he will return to New York from his sabbatical year in October, 1926.

September 14.—Evan E. Young, of South Dakota, is appointed Minister to the Dominican Republic.

VI. EVENTS OF A SCIENTIFIC CHARACTER

August 19.—The Naval Research Laboratory announces the discovery with the Carnegie Institution that radio "fading" and "skip distances" are caused by deflection between the earth's surface and the atmospheric envelope or ceiling of the vertical waves which complete the circuit of the horizontal waves that travel along the earth's surface.

The Tulane Middle-American expedition reports discovery of pottery, stucco portraits, and new cities of the ancient Mayas of Mexico and Central America; some monuments are discovered at Tortuguero dated 388 A. D.

August 20.—Prof. Ferdinando Cazzamali, of Milan, claims in an article in the *Revue Metaphysique*, to have proof that the human brain emits radio waves.

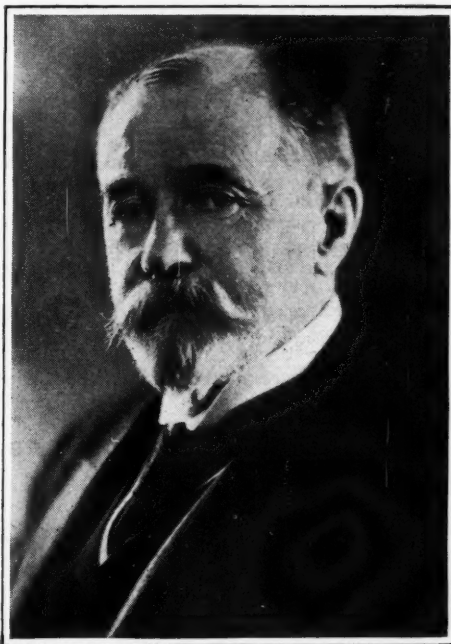
August 27.—The MacMillan aviators, after being ordered to return from the Arctic, report by radio that the Navy planes flew 75 hours, 50 minutes, about 6,066 miles, covering a region of 30,000 square miles; only one plane of the three is in commission.

August 31.—The Navy seaplanes *PN-9*, Nos. 1 and 3, leave San Pablo Bay, San Francisco, for Hawaii, a distance of 2100 nautical miles; but the No. 3 is forced down 300 miles from shore and the No. 1 is lost at sea.

September 3.—The American-built Navy dirigible *Shenandoah* is destroyed during a storm near Caldwell, Ohio; fourteen men are killed, including Lieut. Com. Zachary Lansdowne (see page 354).

September 10.—The Navy seaplane *PN-9*, No. 1, under command of Commander John Rodgers, lost at sea, is found within fifteen miles of Kauai Island, Hawaii, by a submarine; the plane sailed 400 miles under jury rig and all hands are safe.

The Phi Beta Kappa Society, at its fifteenth triennial convention, resolves that "in view of the present tendency to suppress freedom of thought and speech in our colleges" it must insist on having "academic freedom that is essential to the pursuit of truth" or refuse the privileges of the society.



THE LATE VICTOR F. LAWSON, OF CHICAGO

(Mr. Lawson, who was born September 9, 1850, died on August 19, having been identified prominently with Chicago journalism for half a century. With Mr. Melville E. Stone as his partner, he developed the Chicago *Daily News* into a great institution. His career was an honor to the newspaper profession, and his philanthropies have set a good example. He leaves the *Daily News* to be carried on under trustees and to remain identified with the best interests of the great community that it serves)

September 11.—Near Bainbridge, Ohio, four royal mound builder skeletons are found; copper helmets, silver ornaments, rich strands of large pearls, and colored cloth with woven design make the discovery unusually interesting.

VII. OTHER OCCURRENCES OF A MONTH

August 16.—The Zionist conference opens at Vienna under police protection.

August 18.—Max Mason, University of Wisconsin mathematical physicist who invented the submarine detector, is chosen as president of the University of Chicago.

August 19.—At Newport, R. I., nearly fifty persons are killed by a boiler explosion on the excursion steamer *Mackinac*.

The Universal Christian Conference opens its sessions at Stockholm, Sweden, in an effort to find ways to better apply justice, brotherhood, and love to society; there are present 500 delegates from thirty-five nations, and King Gustav makes the opening address in English.

August 21.—Presbyterians report a gain of 42,931 in membership in a year, with a total of 1,873,859; \$57,382,988 was contributed by 9,649 churches to various causes, and there are 10,017 ministers.

August 24.—At Camp Grant, Ill., a one-inch howitzer explodes and kills eight men at target practice; eleven others are hurt.

August 25.—The Kingsway Theater in London produces Shakespeare's "Hamlet" in modern guise, the actors wearing ultra-stylish clothes of the season.

September 2.—Charles E. Hughes, former Secretary of State, addresses the American Bar Association on the danger of the present multiplicity of laws and their intolerance of spirit.

September 3.—Hewitt H. Howland, of Indianapolis, is appointed editor of the *Century Magazine*, effective October 1.

September 4.—Chester S. Long, of Wichita, Kansas, is elected president of the American Bar Association, succeeding the Hon. Charles Evans Hughes.

September 14.—The National Conference of Catholic Charities closes its session at Washington, D. C.

Hamilton Holt accepts the presidency of Rollins College, at Winter Park, Fla.

VIII. FROM THE OBITUARY RECORD

August 14.—Charles Matteson, retired Chief Justice of Rhode Island Supreme Court, 85.

August 15.—O. J. Gude, advertising expert, 63 . . . Randolph Parmly, corporation lawyer, 72.

August 16.—John H. Sage, well-known Connecticut ornithologist and banker, 78.

August 18.—Howard A. Chase, Philadelphia horticulturist, 79.

August 19.—Victor Fremont Lawson, editor and publisher of Chicago *Daily News* and a founder of the Associated Press, 74. . . Miss Helen Culver, Chicago philanthropist, 93. . . William J. McCahill, soda-fountain inventor, 63.

August 20.—Prof. Henry Wood, of Johns Hopkins, 76. . . Rt. Rev. Herbert Edward Ryle, Dean of Westminster, 69. . . Rev. Dr. James Caruthers Rhea Ewing, head of Presbyterian foreign missions, 71. . . Homer Stinson, cartoonist of the *Dayton News*, 42.

August 21.—Ireneo Marinho, noted Brazilian journalist.

August 22.—Michael J. Hayden, Western Union telegraph official. . . George Egbert Mapes, Philadelphia journalist, 86. . . Ralph H. Pomeroy, a distinguished surgeon of Brooklyn, N. Y., 58. . . Eugen Gutmann, founder of the Dresdner Bank in Germany, 85.

August 23.—Dr. Frederick B. Bridgeman, former Congregationalist missionary to South Africa. . . Jonkheer Van Koolen, Dutch socialist, 73.

August 24.—Arthur Bailly-Blanchard, United States Minister to Haiti since 1914, 70.

August 25.—Charles Frederick Chandler, former president of the Health Department of New York City, chemist, 88. . . Field Marshal Count Francis Conrad von Hoetzendorf, former Chief of the Imperial Austrian General Staff, 73.

August 27.—Thomas Louis Hisgen, of Massachusetts, who ran independently for President, 67. . . J. Washington Logue, well-known Philadelphia lawyer, 62.

August 28.—Adolphe Brisson, noted French writer and critic, 85.

August 29.—Dr. Henry Jones Ford, professor of government and politics at Princeton, 74. . . William Osborn Stoddard, one of Lincoln's private secretaries, 89.

August 30.—James Ferdinand McCann, Texas painter, 56. . . Edwin Bailey Chilton, long a contributor to the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, 71.

August 31.—Frederick Gregory Mather, journalist and author, 81. . . Arthur Tisdale Bradley, Boston industrialist, 58.

September 1.—Peter Spahn, former President of the German Reichstag, 71. . . Rev. Daniel Miner Gordon, principal emeritus of Queen's University, Canada, 80.

September 2.—Henry Hobart Vail, former editor-in-chief of American Book Co., 86. . . Dr. John Edwin Rhodes, Chicago throat specialist, 74. . . Thomas Carey, Chicago politician, 62.

September 3.—Edward R. Stettinius, of J. P. Morgan & Co., 65. . . Robert Young Thomas, Jr., Congressman from Kentucky.

September 4.—Peter Zucker, former head of education in Cleveland, 66.

September 5.—Rev. Thomas Benjamin Neely, of Philadelphia, former Methodist Episcopal Bishop, 84. . . Mrs. William Gerry Slade, noted New England civic worker, 78.

September 6.—Louis Arthur Russell, composer and author, of Newark, N. J., 71. . . William Riley Hatch, actor, 60.

September 7.—Philip Rene Viviani, noted French orator and former Premier, 62. . . Job Rockfield Furman, Chicago engineer, 60.

September 8.—Rev. Jacob Abram Clutz, of Gettysburg, Lutheran leader, 87. . . Frank Milton Garland, machine-gun inventor, 71. . . Rabbi Ignatius Mueller, of Louisville, Ky., 68. . . F. X. Schifferle, Catholic editor, 76.

September 9.—Frederick Stone Barnum, New York lawyer, 67.

September 10.—Augustin Jones, Boston lawyer, author, and educator, 89. . . Henry Lincoln Johnson, Negro Republican leader, 55. . . Rev. Charles E. Davis, prominent New England Methodist, 72. . . Stephen Sherman Rich, of Providence, R. I., Republican leader, 79.

September 11.—Patrick Henry Kelley, former Congressman from Michigan, naval expert, 58. . . James Hutchins Baker, president emeritus of University of Colorado, 78.

September 12.—Henry C. Earles, owner of the Penn Yan (Pa.) *Democrat*, 60.

September 13.—George S. Pomeroy, Reading (Pa.), merchant, 72. . . C. G. Wilcox, Wisconsin Democrat, 77. . . John Joseph Mitchell, former Congressman from Massachusetts, 52. . . Edith Matilda Thomas, distinguished American poet.

September 14.—Albert Tobias Clay, Yale Assyriologist and authority on Babylonian history, 50. . . Dr. Henry Rose Carter, Assistant Surgeon-General, famous sanitarian, 63. . . Max Pam, prominent corporation lawyer, 60. . . Sir John Jordan, British expert on China, 73. . . Dr. Joseph Singer Halstead, of St. Joseph, Mo., family physician for Henry Clay, 107.

EUROPE AND AMERICA IN CARTOONS



SPANKING HIM MILDLY—From the *News* (Chicago, Ill.)



GOING EVER HIGHER
From the *Item* (New Orleans, La.)

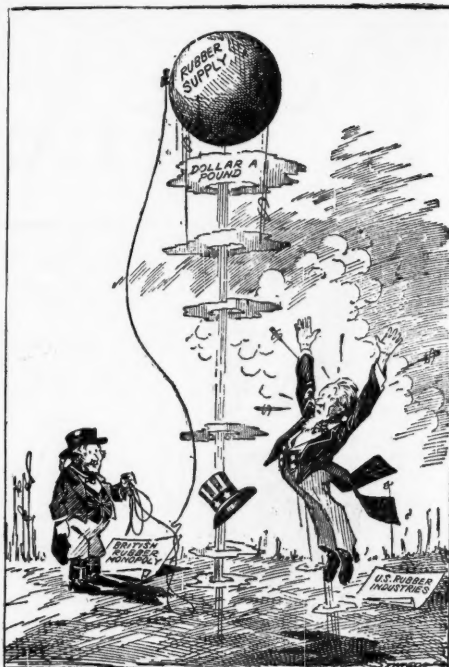


LIGHTENING THE BURDEN AND ADDING TO IT
From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco, Cal.)



GIVE UP? NO! WE'VE JUST BEGUN TO FLY!

By Seibel, in the Knickerbocker Press (Albany, N. Y.)



JOHN BULL'S PLAYTHING

By Stinson in the News (Dayton, Ohio)



A BIRTHDAY CAKE FOR THE WORLD TO SHARE

From the Chronicle (San Francisco, Cal.)

[California became a State seventy-five years ago]



TO WHAT PURPOSE?

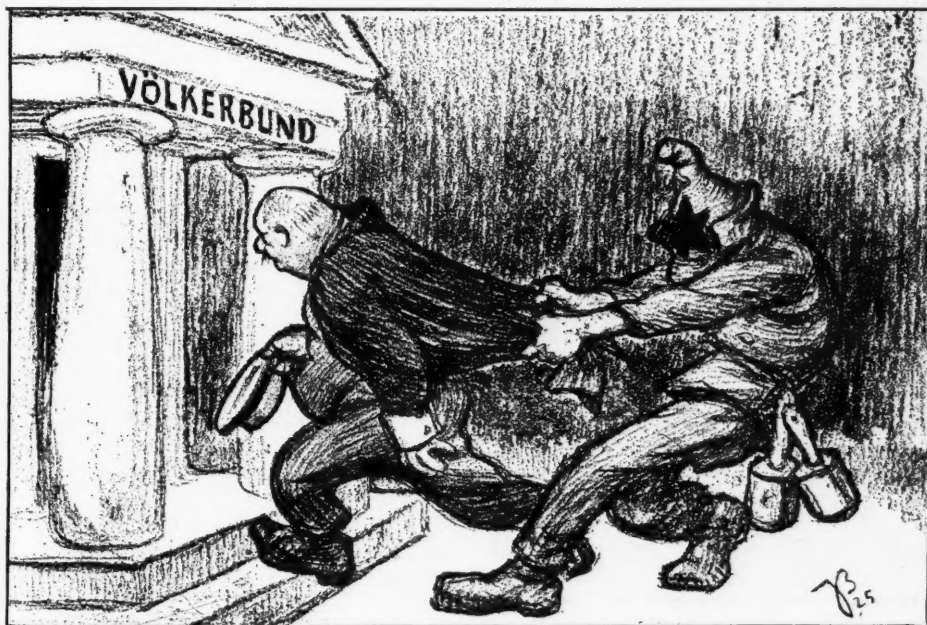
From the World (New York)

[It is with profound regret that we draw attention here to the death of Homer Stinson on August 20. For twenty years his cartoons had appeared in the Dayton News, and recently he had also acted as art director. The News is one of the papers of James M. Cox, and during the presidential campaign of 1920 Mr. Stinson's interpretation of political events was most important and interesting. He had come into the cartoonists' profession from that of newspaper reporting. In addition to his career in Dayton, and a recent experience on Mr. Cox's paper in Miami, he had employed his talents for brief periods in Toledo and Cincinnati.]



GERMANY IS ASSURED THAT THE ANIMAL IS HARMLESS

(At the entrance to the *Völkerbund*, or League of Nations. Article 16 of the Covenant provides for common action, by League members, against any other member who commits an act of war)—From *Magdeburgische Zeitung* (Magdeburg, Germany)



RUSSIA, GERMANY, AND THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

(Some situations are difficult to judge. Is Ivan holding Fritz back, or does he want to go in with him?)
From *Lachen Links* (Berlin, Germany)



A BRITISH VIEW OF UNCLE SAM

(Uncle Sam is keen on helping Europe if he can help himself)
From the *Evening Express* (Cardiff, Wales)

The cartoonist is often more frank than his editorial associates, and the American reader may frequently be shocked when he sees foreign cartoons which seek to characterize Uncle Sam for their constituents. Feeling in Europe on the question of international debts runs high, and there is severe criticism of the attitude of America that



SPEAKING OF SECURITY PACTS

(If a security pact of this nature could be consummated, it would keep the Old Globe out of the mud and make the bellicose nations of the world sit up and behave)

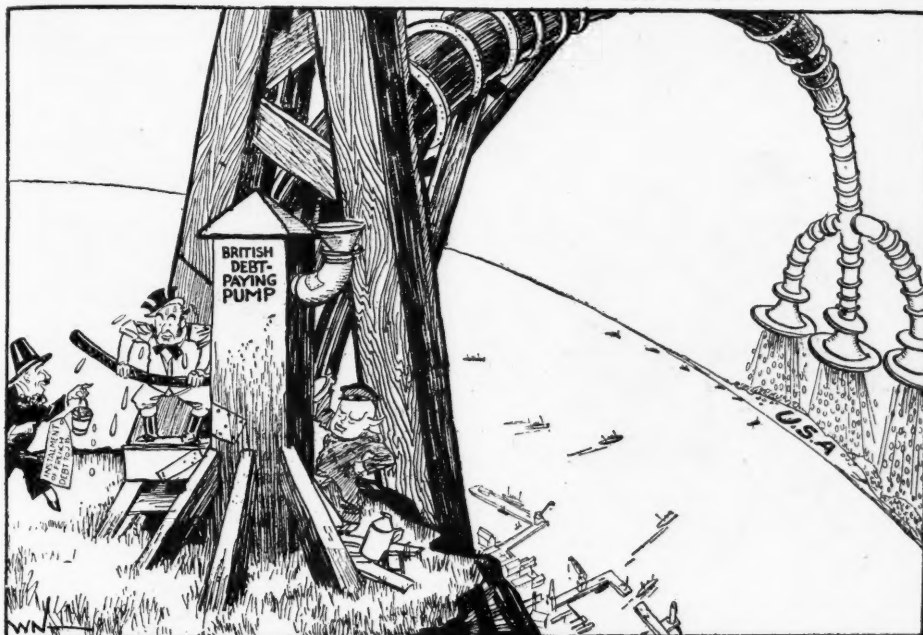
From the *Star* (Montreal, Canada)



THE SKYSCRAPER

(Uncle Sam presents his bill to Belgium)
From *De Nolenkraker* (Amsterdam, Holland)

debts should be recognized and some attempt made to pay them. Thus we have a Welsh newspaper picturing Uncle Sam as rifling the pockets of Europe, sandbagged by Mars, the god of war. A Dutch paper sees us as a bill collector oppressing the Belgian workman. The London *Herald* portrays Uncle Sam as a modern Shylock demanding and receiving his pound of flesh from all the nations of Europe in turn. There is not much satisfaction for the American who thinks well of his country, as he scans current European cartoons of an international character.



FRANCE'S DEBT PAYMENT TO GREAT BRITAIN: MERELY A DROP IN THE BUCKET THAT SUPPLIES UNCLE SAM'S DEMANDS

From the *Bulletin* (Glasgow, Scotland)



UNCLE SAM SHYLOCK GETTING HIS POUND OF FLESH!

(Following the arrangement by which Britain pays huge sums to the United States Treasury for War Debt, a scheme has been agreed upon for Belgian payments. It is now France's turn)

From the *Herald* (London, England)



GOVERNMENTAL ECONOMY IN GREAT BRITAIN

WINSTON CHURCHILL (Chancellor of the British Exchequer): "Yes; the time has come to call a decisive halt to our expenditure."
 THE BRITISH PUBLIC: "What! Has it all gone?"

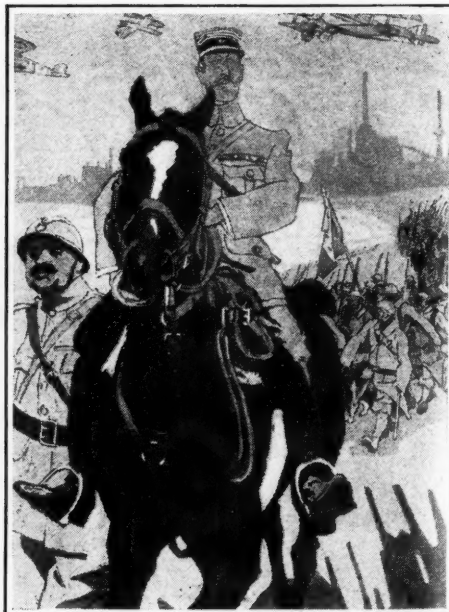
From the *Western Mail* (Cardiff, Wales)



BRIAND AND CHAMBERLAIN

EUROPA (to the foreign ministers of France and Britain):
 (Come on, you chattering old women! Do you want to obstruct the way forever?)

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin, Germany)



FRANCE WITHDRAWS FROM THE RHINE

(It won't be so easy to fight the Riffs. . . . They are not disarmed)

From *Simplicissimus* (Munich, Germany)

HOME RULE ASSURED FOR NEW YORK CITY

BY CHARLES E. HUGHES

(Former Governor of New York, Justice of the Supreme Court, and Secretary of State)

UNDER the Home-Rule Amendment, the City of New York enters upon a new era, with a unique opportunity and responsibility. It is interesting to recall the long, slow, but steadily progressing movement, of which this is the culmination. It has often been said, and rightly, that the principle of home rule antedates our State Constitution, and that it has been safeguarded sedulously as a part of our political inheritance. But this principle in the State of New York at the outset had a very limited application.

Under the first Constitution, adopted in 1777, the State had a highly centralized form of government. Some local officers were elected locally, but the Council of Appointment—consisting of the Governor and four Senators chosen by the Assembly—had the general power to select public officers. We can imagine what a formidable centralized authority this was when we reflect that as early as 1821, when the Council of Appointment was abolished by the second Constitution of the State, after the Council had existed for forty-five years, it had the appointment of about 15,000 public officers.

By the Constitution of 1821, sheriffs and clerks of counties were to be chosen by the electors of the counties, and mayors of cities by their respective common councils. The adoption of these provisions and the abolition of the Council of Appointment, as a competent historian has said, "broke into fragments and virtually annihilated a power which for nearly half a century had distributed in every quarter of the State the spoils of victory of the one party over another," a power which "elevating some and depressing others had nourished faction and frequently produced a state of feeling in the public which threatened a dissolution of the bonds which unite together a civilized and Christian community."

By a constitutional amendment in 1833, it was provided that the Mayor of the City of New York should be elected by the qualified electors of the city, and in 1846, by the third Constitution of the State, the home-rule provision for the local election of county, city, town and village officers was adopted. Between the time of the Dongan charters of New York and Albany, granted in 1686, and the constitutional convention of 1846, it appears that only nine municipalities had charters. Later, the legislature granted a great number of special municipal charters in which the principle of home rule was variously applied.

But, so far as the measure of authority to be conferred upon cities and their officers was concerned, apart from the local selection of local officers, the legislature retained its control. The State exercised its sovereign power to create and define the scope of local authority, and reserved its sovereign power to change that authority at its will. There was, indeed, a growing regard for the policy of non-interference with local affairs, but the legislative control remained and was illustrated by the constant interposition of State power in local government.

The distinguished Commission appointed by Governor Tilden recommended that control of certain specified local subjects should be committed to the municipal government, but this was not adopted. Despite the distinction and breadth of view of that Commission, it was unwilling to go beyond a limited recommendation because it was thought unwise, except in a few particulars, "to deprive the legislature of the power of intervention, as the cities of our State would be left," they said, "unprotected against those evils which obtain, in many instances, to make a resort to the central authority absolutely necessary."

By the Constitution adopted in 1894, it was provided that municipal elections

should be held in odd-numbered years so that these elections should be separated so far as practicable from State and Federal elections. The important provision was also adopted for the transmission of special city laws to the Mayor for appropriate expression of local approval or disapproval, but such laws could, nevertheless, be enacted over local objection.

The Home Rule Amendment adopted in 1923 prohibits the legislature from passing any law relating to the property, affairs, or government of cities which shall be special or local, either in its terms or in its effect, and requires that the legislature shall act, except in emergency cases, in relation to such matters only by general laws which shall apply alike to all cities. The cities themselves are endowed with power to adopt and amend local laws, not inconsistent with the Constitution and laws of the State, relating to the powers, duties, qualifications, number, mode of selection and removal, terms of office and compensation of all officers and employees of the city, the transaction of its business, the incurring of its obligations, the presentation, ascertainment and discharge of claims against it, the acquisition, care, management and use of its streets and property, the wages or salaries, the hours of work or labor, and the protection, welfare and safety of persons employed by any contractor or subcontractor performing work, labor or services for it, and the government and regulation of the conduct of its inhabitants and the protection of their property, safety and health. Pursuant to the mandate of the Amendment, the legislature (in 1924) provided for the carrying into effect of this provision.

The language of the Amendment is not free from ambiguity, but whatever limitations may appear as the Amendment and the Act of 1924 are judicially construed, it is manifest that there is, in any event, a broad grant of authority. In matters of grave import relating to the property, affairs or government of the City of New York, the city may determine its own policy and its destiny is in its own hands.

When it is remembered that of the forty-eight States in the Union there are only four, including the State of New York itself, the population of which exceeds the population of the City of New York, and the number, cosmopolitan character and the varied interests of its people are considered, it may be said that the government

of the City of New York is more important than that of any of the States, with but few exceptions.

The reason why the State of New York has been so slow to invest its great metropolis with independent authority over its own affairs is not because the principle of home rule has not received abstract recognition, but because the people of the State have been afraid to trust the people of the city. DeTocqueville said that municipal institutions are to liberty what primary schools are to science; they bring it within the people's reach; they teach men how to use and how to enjoy it. But it has been feared that the pupils in this case were not sufficiently advanced to take care of themselves.

This lack of confidence has not been without ground. Save for sporadic ebullitions of public virtue, the people of the City of New York have readily submitted to misrule, and the history of the city contains too many disgraceful pages to enable us to boast of capacity for self-government. If a large portion of the people of the city itself had not had the distrust which was felt by the rest of the people of the State, the City of New York would have had an abundant measure of home rule long before this.

Now we have it. What are we going to do with it? This is a question which rises above the strife of parties and the ambitions of political rivals. There is obviously no lack of intelligence, of competence, of experience, of probity, among the citizens of New York. Perhaps in no community in the world can more men be found who individually are so readily trusted with great enterprises. The question is, how the intelligence and competence of citizens can be made to react upon the government of the city. The difficulty lies in the fact that in the most cynical manner municipal opportunities have been made the private preserves of political leaders.

This not only has meant the cultivation of exceptional opportunities for graft, but, to a considerable extent, has made civic employment a refuge for incompetents who are maintained, through a mistaken generosity, not in almshouses but in public offices. And then there is the capitalization of ignorance through the success of demagogues in creating distrust of competent men of affairs. Unfortunately, the conduct of certain men of business, in the past, has been largely responsible for this feeling because of their abuse of public opportunity

and their efforts to debauch those who were willing to be debauched.

Happily, public interests are now better safeguarded, and the standards of morality in public affairs are higher. The City of New York is full of honorable business men, of great ability and competent for public service. With the vast interests committed to the care of the city it is time that the mischievous perversions of demagogues should yield to intelligence. This can be accomplished only by a heightened sense of civic responsibility on the part of individual citizens and by intensifying the efforts of organizations throughout the city to spread the understanding of its problems and to maintain a higher level of interest in civic affairs.

The local government has now increased capacity for harm as well as good, for multiplying interferences with our comfort and convenience and placing restraints upon the prosperity to which we are entitled. But the intimate contacts of the city give play to wholesome influences as well as to those that are baleful, and in a great community, with all sorts of instrumentalities of education, with experience in innumerable ways teaching her lessons every day, good sense should have the best chance. The significance of the coming election lies in the new opportunity. The citizens of New York will make their own bed, and sooner or later they will see to it that it is made comfortable.

NEW YORK AND ITS ENVIRONS

BY WILLIAM BRISTOL SHAW

FOR 300 years white men have been striving to "develop" Manhattan Island and its environs after the best manner of the realtor. New York in our time is the world's greatest city. Its premiership is indisputable. Why at this late day speak of "plans" for betterment? Why paint the lily?

Because this metropolis, like every other, has paid, and is paying, a heavy price for its advancement. Because mistakes that were made by the fathers have been perpetuated and repeated by the children. Because, side by side with the achievement of the acme of luxurious living on this narrow Manhattan Island over which Peter Stuyvesant ruled, has come in these later times a crowding and herding of humanity such as our civilization cannot tolerate.

London was once a horrible example of overcrowding and slum conditions. There is still room for improvement in the British metropolis. About sixty Londoners live—or exist—on each acre of land in the city proper. But what shall we say of Manhattan Borough with its 162 inhabitants to the acre? Yet within view from the Woolworth tower are thousands of acres on which no human being lives, or has lived from Governor Stuyvesant's day to this.

Among all New York's claims to pre-eminence among cities she can well afford to lose this one—that no other equivalent

area on the earth's surface is so densely peopled. Manhattan Borough's two millions of inhabitants dwelling on their rocky islet, which in London would afford space for considerably less than half as many, do not offer an altogether edifying spectacle. In three centuries we should have learned how to make better adjustments.

For after all it is largely a question of adjustment. Families in more than one of New York's boroughs have to pay \$13 a month per room for unheated flats. The land on which the flats stand is so valuable that private capital cannot be induced to build additional accommodations except with a prospect of higher rental. Thus the supply falls far short of the demand. Meanwhile the crowding brings all kinds of evils in its train. Both public and private resources are taxed to the utmost to provide rapid transit and where new lines are opened land values advance rapidly, taxes are increased—and promptly passed on to the tenant in the form of higher rents.

The congestion of the streets not only brings danger to life and limb; it is actually a barrier to the normal course of trade and thus a cause of economic loss and waste. Why are horses still largely used for trucking in the streets of New York, when in smaller cities they have practically been replaced by motor trucks? Because the traffic delays make the motor truck uneconomical. These

same delays add frightfully to the cost of transportation of foodstuffs and almost every commodity used in the city. Who pays for all this? None other than our old friend with the Latin name—the Ultimate Consumer.

The Sage Foundation's Survey

It would be possible to give many other examples of the personal discomfort and the economic loss to which the citizens of New York are subjected by the congestion which has been growing steadily worse in the city for many years. Among the questions that arise are these: What are the causes of this abnormal crowding; what can be done to eliminate them? Three years ago a Committee on a Regional Plan for New York and Its Environs was formed for the specific purpose of "examining the growth and physical needs of the communities in the New York metropolitan area in terms not of any one municipality, but of the whole region within fifty miles of Manhattan." The fact was recognized that both population and industry in and about New York were increasing at a remarkable rate, and it was hoped that by suggesting practical provisions for this increase the committee might be able to offer real help towards making the region a better place for people to work in and live in.

A comparatively large district was chosen for the committee's field of operations, because it was felt that nothing definite could be achieved for the relief of New York without the coöperation of the entire region whose economic interests are closely inter-related with those of the metropolis itself. The committee is making intensive studies of the entire area falling within a radius of sixty miles of the New York City Hall—an area greater than the State of Connecticut and including one of the greatest ports in the world. This region is shared by the States of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut. It contains more than 400 political units, and in order to secure the coöperation of these various governing bodies, local as well as general needs must be taken into account. It is the task of the Regional Plan Committee to get the collaboration of local official bodies and volunteer committees in working out plans which will benefit the entire region. The coöperation of municipal authorities in the different cities and towns has already been obtained to a considerable extent.

The committee is making a survey of the migrations of business and industry in the region, special inquiries into social and living conditions, reports on legal questions affecting zoning and city planning, studies of communication and traffic problems, and physical surveys to accompany all the foregoing. In addition, the committee has undertaken city-planning studies of the uses of land and means of circulation in the environs, and architectural studies of specific problems in Manhattan. All of these investigations are in the hands of groups of experts. The first chairman of the committee was Charles D. Norton, who died within a year after the work had been organized. He was succeeded by Mr. Frederic A. Delano.

Mr. Thomas Adams is General Director of Plans and Surveys, and Mr. Flavel Shurtleff acts as Field Secretary in communicating with the local units. The work is supported wholly by voluntary contributions, chiefly from the Sage Foundation.

In considering the work of this committee one is at once impressed by the fact that the interests with which it is dealing transcend municipal, county and even State divisions. A few years ago it might have seemed impossible to get coöperation between States concerning the social and economic interests of their respective populations. But New York and New Jersey have been working together harmoniously and successfully in creating and maintaining the Palisades Interstate Park. It has been found that State lines do not necessarily form a barrier to organized action in behalf of popular interests.

It will, of course, be said that whatever plan or plans may be proposed by the committee will involve large expenditures in execution. But perhaps those who state this as an objection have not fully realized that under our old and time-sanctioned methods of community development there have always been enormous expenditure and downright waste. On one of New York's commercial streets a building is erected for combined commercial and industrial purposes. The old and useless structures on the site are torn down, a costly foundation laid, and within six months a building is completed which seems to serve the purposes of its owners in every way. Within less than ten years a department store plans to build on the entire block of which the building to which we have referred forms one corner.

The leasehold is purchased and at great expense the solid masonry is demolished, and within a few weeks a substantial and useful structure is razed to the ground. Such incidents as this have occurred in New York over and over again. No doubt they will continue to occur from time to time and the question is, whether the economic waste involved in such procedure could not be largely avoided by intelligent planning for the location of commercial and industrial buildings.

Some startling predictions have lately been made concerning the population growth of New York during the coming fifty years. Without accepting these predictions, one must still be profoundly impressed by the facts developed from the censuses of 1900 and 1920. In the region under study, for example, the population increased during those two decades from 5,384,734 to 8,979,055, or nearly 66 per cent. There is perhaps some slight comfort in the fact that during the same twenty years the number of dwellings in the region increased about 75 per cent., and that period included the war years when little building was done. As an offset to this, however, is the inescapable fact that in the tenement districts unfit buildings are still occupied by tenants.

The noble army of commuters has waxed greater and greater until now 2,000,000 daily enter Manhattan below 50th Street.

During those twenty years there was an increase of almost 200 per cent. in manufacturing plants, although the number of employees showed a gain of only 85 per cent. These few data serve to indicate the extraordinary character of the problems with which the Regional Plan Committee deals.

For the benefit of readers who may not be frequent visitors to New York and who have never had an opportunity to become acquainted with its surroundings, something



NEW YORK CITY AND ITS ENVIRONS IN THE STATES OF NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY AND CONNECTICUT

(The map shows the five boroughs constituting Greater New York and the counties on Long Island and the mainland of New York State and of New Jersey which are nearest to the metropolis. The great industrial centers of Jersey City, Newark and Paterson are in the counties of Hudson, Essex and Passaic, respectively. The area covered by the survey now being conducted by the Regional Plan Committee, under the auspices of the Sage Foundation, extends twenty miles in each direction beyond the outer limits of this map. On the east it includes Bridgeport, Conn., on the north, West Point, and on the west, Princeton)

should be said about the physical diversity of the region. It may seem incredible, but it is actually true, that "wild country" exists within the limits of this "region." Wild deer are numerous every summer within thirty-five miles of the City Hall. Large tracts of land are as completely wilderness as areas of equal size in Arizona or Nevada. So far as human habitations are concerned, there are villages within this New York region which have less than half the population that they had fifty or seventy-five years ago. On the other hand, such industrial centers as Jersey City and Newark, N. J., and Bridgeport, Conn., offer sharp contrasts. The entire region has 56,250 acres of public parks and playgrounds. Perhaps the most remarkable natural feature of the region is its waterfront—1,600 miles in all, only an insignificant part of which has been commercially developed. The following article by Mr. Smith suggests the crucial importance of the Port of New York.

THE GREATEST SHIPPING PORT IN THE WORLD

BY ALEXANDER R. SMITH

WITH a dozen trunk-line railroads terminating at the Port of New York, and vessels of upward of two hundred steamship lines berthing there, coastwise and inland steamboat lines radiating north, east, and southwesterly, manufactures of a volume and value greater than that produced within any similar area in the world, an opulent population of 8,000,000, and with great, spacious land-locked harbors, bays, sounds, and rivers—what wonder that the Port of New York ranks first among the ports of the world? And this, despite port charges higher than in the half-dozen or so other cities whose ambition it is to “stand second to New York” among the ports of the Western Hemisphere.

Measured by value of foreign trade, the Port of New York enjoys 40 per cent. of that of the whole United States, and nearly one-half that of all our seaports. Measured by physical bulk, New York's share of our imports and exports scarcely equals 20 per cent. Again, measured by the water-borne commerce of the country, New York enjoys more than half of its value and about one-third of its bulk. The local water-borne commerce within the 444 square miles of the Port of New York is so pervasive along its 800 miles of shore front, the interchange of which is so diversified and elusive, that the Federal Census Bureau practically admits that an accurate tabulation is impossible.

The Port of New York is an empire, not so much in area as in population, in industries, in transportation, both rail and water, as well as in wealth; and in all these essentials of greatness it exceeds that of any similar area in the world.

As a homely example: In one section of the port, along a waterfront not two miles in length, are located about a score of piers the larger part of which, municipally owned, are of the most modern and splendid type, at the moment almost unused because of the world-wide depression in shipping and

commerce, and yet having a capacity to accommodate a shipping larger and a commerce more valuable than that enjoyed by the second port on the continent of North America—Montreal.

In Jamaica Bay alone (now upon the threshold of a development likely to cost the City of New York more than \$100,000,000, a result of which would be an increase in real-estate values thereabout that will repay the municipality the cost of its improvement in taxes every five years), London, Hamburg, Rotterdam, Antwerp, and Liverpool could all be tucked in one corner. And yet, at the moment, it is an insignificant section of the port.

In Newark Bay, and along the shores of the Passaic and Hackensack Rivers which empty into that bay, there is room for a shipping and commerce, without crowding, as great as that enjoyed now by the whole port. Forty years from now, doubtless, when the population of the Metropolitan District of New York (coterminous in boundaries with the Port of New York), reaches the 50,000,000 recently predicted by Professor Boring of Columbia University, the shore front of the port's New Jersey section just mentioned may enjoy a shipping not alone as great as that of the whole Port of New York, but that of the whole United States in this year of 1925.

And I have said nothing of a vast section of the port at present merely marking time, composed of the wide reaches of the East River and Long Island Sound, with natural deep-water channels close along the Bronx and Westchester shores, on the one side, and on the other for miles eastward the shore of Long Island—all within the Port of New York—in the years to come sure to be the center of great shipping, to-day slightly characterized as a back-door entrance.

Staten Island Sound and the Arthur Kill, a narrow stream separating the most westerly borough of New York City from New Jersey, now accommodates a com-

merce, almost wholly local, the bulk and value of which exceeds that of all the rest of the Atlantic ports of the United States put together. Newtown Creek, a shallow wisp of waterway but four miles long, dividing Queens and Kings Boroughs, boasts of a commerce annually greater than that of the Mississippi River and all of its mighty tributaries combined. And the Harlem River, sometimes known as the Harlem Ship Canal, with but fifteen feet depth, dividing the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, annually freights to and from its shores a commerce the tonnage of which runs into the millions, its value being expressed in hundreds of millions of dollars.

The latest available report of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. Army, with supervision over the federal improvement of the channels of navigable streams of the United States, presents this table of the port's total tonnage for the year 1923:

	<i>Short tons</i>	<i>Value</i>
Foreign imports....	10,855,747	\$1,787,887,822
Foreign exports....	10,174,880	1,878,351,861
Coastwise receipts...	22,442,160	1,235,589,724
Coastwise shipments...	9,922,474	713,554,061
Internal receipts....	8,160,981	178,931,460
Internal shipments...	1,775,624	89,942,343
Intraport.....	64,225,987	4,421,068,424
Total.....	127,557,853	\$10,305,325,695

Out of federal appropriations widely varying in amount, but say between \$25,000,000 and \$50,000,000 annually, for the improvement and maintenance of navigable channels throughout the country, this port annually receives between two and three million. Happily, the depth of most of New York's channels, while often below commercial requirements, suffices to enable vessels to conduct a commerce upon its waters. But there are instances of projects undertaken more than half a century ago in the Port of New York—conspicuously the Harlem Ship Canal—still far from completion, the consequence of which is greatly to obstruct and so diminish its maritime commerce.

New York State contributes little or nothing toward improving the port, aside from the construction and toll-free maintenance of its \$200,000,000 Barge Canal, tributary to New York, its eastern end being distant, nevertheless, 150 miles from the port. New Jersey does practically nothing whatever for the Port of New York.

The City of New York, whose greatness is largely due to its incomparable port, and

a commerce and shipping that literally forced itself upon the port, has been so backward in improving its waterfront, that until the world-wide depression in shipping begun four years ago and never worse than now, it was notorious that there always were in the files of the Dock Department applications from steamship and steamboat companies for permanent pier accommodation far in excess of the supply. The City of New York is probably \$200,000,000 richer in actual waterfront property, wrung from its harried and poorly accommodated shipping in the fifty-five years that have elapsed since its Dock Department was established. This is inclusive of \$25,000,000 expended on its round dozen splendid new Staten Island piers, practically unused, whose construction was entered upon when shipping was at the peak of its post-war boom, and completed when the stagnation of world commerce found millions of tons of ships idle, that are yet idle.

It was largely the inconceivable indifference of New York City toward its shipping and commerce that five or six years ago led to the creation by the States of New York and New Jersey of what was first the New York, New Jersey Port and Harbor Development Commission, subsequently merged into and since officially known as the Port of New York Authority. This is a body corporate, under charter granted by the two States, and ratified by the Federal Government, consisting of six non-salaried commissioners, three from each State. It is required to formulate a well-considered, thoroughly practical, effective, and economical policy for the orderly, systematic, and coordinated development of the port, so as greatly to reduce the transshipment cost of freight, and at the same time equip it with modern facilities to meet future needs.

To accomplish this it is necessary for the Port Authority to secure the active co-operation of the railroads, steamship, and steamboat lines, and consent to upward of a hundred more or less independent municipal bodies, all within the port. Without financial backing or support from either State, it must, with the proceeds of sales of its bonds, acquire and develop property and thus gradually obtain control of its waterfront. It has formulated a great, comprehensive plan for the initiation of its work, and the establishment of efficient and economical conditions of freight-handling.



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A SECTION OF THE NEW SKYLINE OF DOWNTOWN NEW YORK

(At the left of the picture is the Bankers Trust Building, on Nassau Street. Near the center is the new Equitable Building, largest in the city. Next to that, and partly hidden, is the Singer Tower. At the extreme right is the Woolworth Building, fifty-one stories high, the tallest structure in the world)

NEW YORK CITY TO-DAY

BY HOWARD FLORANCE

THE Mayor of New York City and the Borough Presidents are the political rulers of a community of six million souls. As figures mean so little in these days of large affairs, suppose it were differently stated: in the city of New York live as many persons as make up the total population of all the three States of the Pacific Coast—California, Oregon, and Washington. Campaign orators for Mayor Hylan have made the assertion that his is the most important political office in the whole country next to the presidency itself.

The greater city was created in 1898, by uniting the five boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn, Bronx, Queens, and Richmond. In the twenty-seven years that have since elapsed, the population has doubled. Annual expenditures then were about \$90,000,000; now they exceed \$370,000,000. Assessed valuations then totaled three billions; now they reach twelve billions.

A hundred thousand persons each year

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on the average are added to the permanent population of Greater New York; and they are housed, fed, clothed, employed, transported, entertained, and provided for in every way. It is much as though the entire population of Savannah, Ga., had been absorbed last year, Oklahoma City this year, and Harrisburg, Penn., next year.

The city owes its eminence in great degree to its wonderful harbor, with nearly 600 miles of water-front, where half the nation's commerce is handled. But it is more difficult to explain its importance as a manufacturing center, for there are no large industrial establishments such as one finds in Detroit, in Pittsburgh, or in a score of other cities. Yet New York produces one-tenth of all the nation's manufactured goods (more than half of its clothing, for example), mostly in small factories.

The New Yorker could still be in his thirties and yet be able to talk of days when there were no subways and no skyscrapers, when

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surface cars were drawn by horses and elevated trains by steam locomotives, when streets were paved with cobblestones.

Manhattan Island—which with undeveloped Bronx comprised the old city—will always be the financial and commercial center of the greater entity, but the Borough of Brooklyn has already outstripped Manhattan in population, each with approximately two and a quarter millions—the figure for Manhattan having remained stationary for sixteen years.

When the first subway was opened and the era of rapid transit was inaugurated, twenty years ago, the outlying sections of New York began to grow. Bronx Borough, to the northeast, developed first, as a residential community addicted to the apartment type of home. Brooklyn, it should be remembered, was a city in itself. The Borough of Queens, which lies to the east of Brooklyn on Long Island, was slower to start but now lays claim to being the fastest growing community in the whole world. The State census of June is ex-



THE HOME OF THE NEW YORK TELEPHONE COMPANY, NOW NEARING COMPLETION ON THE LOWER WATER-FRONT

(An illustration of the set-back or terraced architecture made necessary by new building laws)



THE NEW BUILDING OF THE STANDARD OIL COMPANY, AT 26 BROADWAY

(The rounded front follows the curve of Broadway at Bowling Green, and makes the tower appear to belong to some other structure. In the foreground is the Custom House, and in the distance is the Woolworth Tower)

pected to show for Queens a 50 per cent. growth in five years—from 469,000 in 1920 to 715,000 in 1925. This increase of 246,000 is more than the entire present population of Providence, Columbus, or St. Paul.

Just as the apartment houses of the Bronx a decade ago represented a marked step forward in living conditions, so the single-family detached dwellings of Queens Borough and the newer sections of Brooklyn are a credit to the city. More noteworthy still is the fact that these hundreds of thousands of new homes are occupied not by tenants but by owners.

Manhattan Island, the hub of Greater New York, can well afford to permit its toilers to move to less crowded sections, for it has not ceased to grow ever more important as the center of employment and trade. People may *live* in the four other boroughs, but nine out of ten of the city's wage-earners—at a guess—work in Manhattan. The metropolis also affords



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THE NEW UPTOWN SKYSCRAPER DISTRICT IN NEW YORK, AROUND FORTY-SECOND STREET

employment to hundreds of thousands who live in New Jersey, Connecticut, and adjacent counties in New York State.

The value of business property in Manhattan apparently has no limit. In Brooklyn Borough, vast undeveloped areas known as Flatbush and Flatlands have been transformed into residential sections. In Queens, acres of farm land have become important suburban communities almost over-night. Aladdin's lamp has been rubbed, and priceless water-front property has been created by the simple expedient of employing a suction dredge in swamp areas. Suck up the muddy bottom of shallow Jamaica Bay and dump it along the marshy shore; the water runs off, the mud dries out, the filled-in part becomes firm land, and the dredged channel flows with clean water.

Nature placed hard and fast limits upon Manhattan Borough, entirely surrounding it by water. Upward is the only direction in which it can grow, and man has done his best to atone for Nature's limitations. The outstanding "skyscraper," towering forty or fifty stories above the street, is still here and there in evidence, though the newer phenomenon downtown is the mass of tall buildings averaging perhaps thirty stories in height. The Singer Tower, for example, forty-one stories high, no longer stands out.

In order to allow light and air to reach the offices and streets below, a wise local

legislature enacted a zoning law which limits the height of new buildings in proportion to their area and to the width of the street; and this has resulted in the designing of a most interesting set-back or terrace type of tall building which is completely altering the city's architecture.

The same zoning idea is responsible for the removal of the garment manufacturers from lower Fifth Avenue and the creation of a new "garment center" on side streets farther uptown. Hundreds of thousands of factory employees have thus been removed from the city's finest avenue, and the vacated loft buildings have been occupied by publishing houses, casualty insurance companies, and the like.

The northward movement of insurance concerns is a typical instance of the shifting about of business districts in New York—in much the same manner that a fisherman moves to a new spot and is followed by first one and then others of his rivals. The Equitable Life concern, for example, has left the downtown financial district and erected an immense structure opposite the Pennsylvania Railroad terminal at Thirty-second Street. The New York Life is building a still larger home on the site of the old Madison Square Garden, at Twenty-sixth Street. This movement northward was pioneered by the department stores, about twenty years ago.



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**WHERE THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD STATION IS CREATING A NEW SKYSCRAPER DISTRICT,
AT THIRTY-THIRD STREET**

(At the left is the Printing Crafts Building. In the center is the recently enlarged Macy Department Store. Toward the right are the Pennsylvania Hotel and the new home of the Equitable Life. In the foreground is the main post-office)

An outstanding phase of this shifting of industries is the movement of larger units to Long Island City (which, though its name indicates otherwise, is part of Greater New York), now made accessible by the Queensboro Bridge, longest of the four structures across the East River.

A new skyscraper district is emerging uptown, centering at Forty-second Street, under an impetus furnished by the improved Grand Central Terminal of the New York Central and New Haven railroads. The diversification of interests in this new section may be seen when we note that one of a dozen twenty-to-thirty-story buildings carries the name of a prominent banking house while others are the Yale Club, the Biltmore Hotel, the New York *Times* office, besides the usual office buildings.

Extending northward from the Grand Central Terminal is Park Avenue, now the city's foremost residential thoroughfare. Only a few years ago the same street was a neglected eye-sore whose principal function was to allow smoke to escape from the railroad tracks below. Electrification has removed the smoke nuisance, the vents

have been closed and a parked area substituted, and Park Avenue has been rebuilt with apartments the rentals of which stagger the imagination.

Another phase of transformation in the physical appearance of New York City is the restoration of lower Fifth Avenue as a high-class residential section. Between the REVIEW OF REVIEWS offices at Twelfth Street, and Washington Square, five short blocks south (where Fifth Avenue begins), there are half a dozen apartment hotels averaging fifteen stories in height, hardly more than one of which is two years old. All of these have displaced small dwellings dating back to the Civil War period. The most recent instance is that of the old Brevoort residence, occupying a plot possibly a hundred feet square on Fifth Avenue at Ninth Street, sold recently for a million dollars and immediately demolished to make way for an apartment hotel. In this manner the housing shortage has in part been met; for while the old Brevoort residence might have afforded shelter to a dozen souls, the new structure will furnish living accommodations for several hundred.

NEW YORK'S CENSUS OF 1925

BY WALTER LAIDLAW

THE most populous State of the Union set itself, more than a hundred years ago, to take an enumeration of its inhabitants five years after each Federal Census. The Constitution of New York State, adopted in 1821, contained a proviso for counting its population in 1825 and every tenth year thereafter; and this requirement, retained in the Constitution's revisions of 1846 and 1894, is still in force.

It is easy to divine some of the motives which originally led to New York's determination on periodic censuses of its own. Pride in its recent population growth was one. Since the First Federal Census, the proportion of the nation's population domiciled in the State had risen from 87 to 142 in every thousand persons. Virginia, the most populous until 1810 of the seventeen States enumerated in 1790, surrendered first rank to New York in 1820. The Federal Census is constitutionally required for apportionment of State representation at Washington: New York needed its own census, with schedules adjusted to its citizenship laws and specially tabulated in view of them, for apportionment of legislative representation of its areas at Albany.

Historic Reasons for a State Census

The ascertaining of population origin was yet another reason for an independent New York State census. The year 1820 had commenced the nation's registration of the countries of origin of foreign accessions, at immigration ports, to the population of the United States. The Port of New York was then, as now, their main door of entry. The nation had not yet begun to classify population as native and foreign-born in its decennial enumerations. That inquiry was not nationally attempted until the census of 1850. Affected, however, by the new national requirement of the registration of the origins of foreign-born, New York State so clearly saw the necessity of statistical discrimination between citizens and aliens that it provided for it in the census of 1825, and twenty years later tabulated its entire

population in terms of birth locality, within the United States and outside.

Additional to these two motives for a periodic State census supplementary to the Federal Census was the high expectation of the influence of the Erie Canal, then building, on the growth both of the commerce and the population of New York State.

If the Erie Canal failed to increase the population of the whole State more rapidly than the nation was expanding, it expanded New York City more rapidly than any other American city.

Range of Statistics Gathered

The Act of the Legislature providing for the method and content of that enumeration was passed April 8, 1825, and is entitled "An Act to Provide for Making Future Enumerations of the Inhabitants of this State and for Procuring Useful Statistical Tables." The commercial expectations of the State were so strong that, after specifying the items of the population schedule, a section was appended to the Act making it obligatory on the marshals to gather the equivalent, for the time, of inquiries now conducted by the agriculture and manufacturing divisions of the Federal Census.

Specifically, the marshals were to ascertain the acreage of improved land worked by every family; the number of neat cattle owned; the number of horses, sheep and hogs; the number of yards of fulled cloth, flannel, linen, cotton or other material manufactured in the family; and the number of grist mills, saw mills, fulling mills, carding machines, cotton and wool factories, iron works and distilleries in every community of the State. Later, census schedules added yet other inquiries, among them a tabulation of churches and denominations, including their membership, seating capacity, property value and salary roll.

But it was against the continuation of the "hog" item that Gov. David B. Hill, in a message vetoing, in 1885, and again in 1886, an appropriation of the Legislature for the

seventh constitutional enumeration of New York State, directed his invective.

The Secretary of State in 1885 was anxious to accept the offer of the nation to pay half the cost of the enumeration of the State in consideration of use by the State of the Federal schedule. Governor Hill was so strongly in favor of confining the census to items essential to reapportionment of senatorial districts as to ask what relation there was between a count of hogs and a count of human beings as a basis for carrying out the purpose of the Constitution.

Consequently, the decade 1881-1890 saw no census of New York State at New York's expense, and not until the new invasion of America by large southeastern European immigration in the next decade was the State aroused to sense, as in 1820, the citizenship import of incoming immigration. In 1892 the belated census of 1885 was accordingly provided for, and sufficed at the same time for that of 1895.

Scientific Tabulation

For half a century, therefore, namely since 1875, New York State's census has been taken and tabulated for purely political purposes. Governor Hill, in 1885, gave as a reason for cutting out all sociological inquiries that the State, since the census of 1855, which continued the inclusiveness of that of 1845, had added so many departments issuing reports on social conditions, and that the Federal Census reports were so voluminous and valuable, that all the State needed was an appropriation to ascertain the number and nature of its inhabitants.

The spirit of that protest survives in the very form of the State Law controlling the census of 1925. In 1825 the items of the schedule were set forth in plain view, in the enabling Act: in the law of 1925, accompanied by meticulous provisions for a statistical distinction between citizens and aliens, the additional items of the schedule are camouflaged by the statement that the enumerators, "for purposes of identification," are to ascertain the sex, age, color, nativity and occupation of the inhabitants of the State. The schedule, apart from a column added to determine the citizenship of women married to foreigners since 1922, is precisely the same as the schedule of 1905 and 1915.

But yielding to the insistence of its first woman Secretary of State, supported by

State Departments which would fain have even yearly statistical tables for the measurement and increase of their efficiency and by powerful social agencies in New York City, New York State's enumeration of 1925 includes the purpose of scientific tabulation in the scale of the appropriation made and the specifications of its uses.

John Bigelow appealed to the legislature of 1876 for funds to digest the returns then remaining untabulated "so as to give them, if possible, a value proportionate to the cost of securing them." The cost of the 1875 census levied and paid by the counties was \$263,053.99; and, utilizing clerks paid not more than \$60 a month, Secretary Bigelow spent \$100,000 directly appropriated by the legislature on the mere matter of tabulation. In 1915 the State appropriated \$465,000 and spent it all without giving its departments and voluntary welfare agencies any directive data.

In 1925 enumeration and citizenship tabulation similar to the citizenship tabulations of 1915 and 1905 will have cost the State \$1,000,000 or more, but a sum perhaps larger than John Bigelow spent will remain in the hands of Mrs. Florence E. S. Knapp, now Secretary of State, of the census of 1925, to tabulate her return still further, utilizing in so doing the economizing applications of electricity to statistical compilation which were first employed in the Federal Census of 1890. The appropriation for enumeration and tabulation in 1925 was \$1,200,000.

The range of the inquiries of the census of 1925 is smaller than their range in 1875, and having placed the oversight of the tabulation of 1925 in the hands of Dr. Joseph A. Hill, Assistant to the Director of the Federal Census Bureau, Mrs. Knapp has every expectation that its scientific presentment and interpretation will match her efforts for the collection of reliable and comprehensive population data.

In John Bigelow's report there is a prediction that New York State, in a quarter of a century, would have a population "equal to that of the British Empire in the days of Shakespeare and Bacon," or 6,136,009. Actually, New York State in 1900 had 7,268,894, and Mrs. Knapp expects a card tabulation of about 11,000,000 people.

The mere surplus of births over deaths in New York State from January 1, 1920, to June 1, 1925, was over 500,000, and the

surplus of arrivals within the area of New York State from other States in the Union, and from foreign countries, will probably so add to the 10,385,227 population of 1920 as to bring the total of the State, as at June 1, 1925, to nearly 11,000,000 people.

New York City and European Immigration

Considerably over half of this empire of people will be revealed as residents of New York City. No one would characterize New York State to-day as John Bigelow characterized it in 1875, as a State "the larger part of which is consecrated to agricultural industries." If the Erie Canal has not succeeded in giving the up-curve of the State's growth an ascent sharper than the up-curve of the nation's growth, the conjunction of the influence of the Erie Canal and railroad terminals on the Port of New York, coupled with the city's access to cheap immigrant labor, has given New York City an astounding commercial growth, of which the harbor of New York is the main element.

Consequently, there is no other area of the State so intensely interested in the results of Mrs. Knapp's tabulations as is New York City. It learned from the census of 1920 that northwestern European immigration—to which the immigration law that went into effect July 1, 1924, gives a quota larger than the quota given southeastern European immigration—is not prone, apart from its Irish element, to domicile itself in New York. It faces a record of losing from 1910 to 1920, 131,000 northwestern Europeans, and gaining 179,000 southeastern Europeans, and knows that but for the access of the latter it would have failed from 1910 to 1920 to grow as rapidly as the nation.

Unfortunately, the schedule of 1925 omits the parentage nativity, while including the personal nativity of the inhabitants of the State, and the instructions to enumerators contain no requirement of a record of birthplace outside New York State within the limits of the United States. Hence the tabulation of the "native-born" in the 1925 census will indiscriminately mix together natives of Alaska, California and New York State, and unless a most laborious editing of the enumerators' schedules is undertaken, will mix natives of European and American parentage.

Sufficient items remain in the schedule, however, to have induced the social welfare agencies of New York City to appeal to Mrs. Knapp to tabulate the census of 1925, as were the Federal Censuses of 1920 and 1910, in terms not only of political units, but of the 40-acre neighborhood units now used by the Health Department as the sanitary districts of New York City for study of morbidity, birth and death records.

With access accorded to the machine tabulations, Cities' Census Committee, a corporation chartered by the State for educational and scientific purposes, and including in its membership experts in population studies representing commercial, municipal, religious and philanthropic agencies, will prepare and publish the results, as was done in "Statistical Sources for Demographic Studies of Greater New York, 1920," and for 1910.

The New York City of 1890 numbered 2,507,414 people. The southeastern Europeans in it, in 1920, numbered 2,531,778, and this great group was the product practically of a single generation. New York City will celebrate in 1926 its 300th anniversary, but the native whites of native parentage born within it and without it in all of America and surviving within it next year will be only one-third of the southeastern Europeans born within it, plus their surviving immigrant parents living with them, in the last thirty years.

New York therefore needs to know from its State's census not only population conditions useful to the legislature at Albany and to State departments operating there, but population conditions essential to intelligent administration in its own City Hall and to the multiform welfare agencies which are set to make New York not only big but great. The State Census of 1925 will therefore be memorable not only for its return to rational tabulation of enumeration data, but for the coöperation of social with political agencies of the State.

The year 1825 saw the operation of new immigration regulations; 1925 does also; and now, as then, New York State needs census data more recent than the Federal Census gives to measure the effect of that legislation on its growth and characteristics.

If it needed quinquennial censuses in 1825 it much more needs them to-day.

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NEW DISCUSSIONS OF OLD DEBTS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. THE AMERICAN POSITION

THE last month has been entirely dominated by the economic—as contrasted with the political—problems of international relations; and the economic aspect has been mainly confined to new discussions of old debts. The settlement in Washington of the Belgian war debt to the United States; the tentative and wholly illusory Anglo-French agreement at London, dealing with the war debt of the French to their British ally; the forthcoming negotiations in Washington of both French and Italian debts to us; finally, the publication of the first report of the Agent-General charged with the administration of the Dawes Plan—all these recent episodes have drawn attention to the circumstances of the financial liquidation of the war.

Since, moreover, when this article reaches the reader, there is every prospect that negotiations will be going forward in Washington between M. Caillaux and our own Debt Commission for the settlement of France's obligations, I have thought this month to concentrate my comment upon the general subject of international debts, which obviously remain the outstanding problem of the post-war period. I shall give only passing notice to the Anglo-Franco-German security pact and to the meeting at Geneva of the Assembly of the League of Nations, a meeting which is patently dominated by consideration not of the subjects immediately in hand but of the prospects of German entrance and of the League's relation to any possible security agreement.

Harking back to the question of the debt, the natural point of departure is the American relation to the whole debt issue and the American policy with respect of the debt owed to us. Our position, it must be recalled, is unique, that is to say, we are the only nation which owes nothing and

is owed by many, while the Germans are the only country which, having no claim on anybody, owes many.

With a national debt of \$21,000,000,000, we have as an offset the obligations owed to us by ten or a dozen countries which amount, roughly speaking, to \$12,000,000,000. That sum represents original principal and the interest accrued thereon. The relation of these sums owed, to our own debt, is plain. We are paying interest on all the sums which are owed to us, because they were in turn raised by us from our own people. We borrowed from our own citizens and loaned to our allies. We have paid our own citizens, but our allies are only beginning to pay us.

The policy of our Government has steadily been that the loans must be satisfied, that all suggestion of cancellation or large reduction was to be repulsed. Two years ago, moreover, the present British Prime Minister, Mr. Stanley Baldwin, made with our Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Mellon, the so-called Baldwin-Mellon agreement, which was accepted then and since by our Government and people as the standard for all debt settlements to be made. Under that system some \$5,200,000,000 of the outstanding \$12,000,000,000 debt has been funded.

The terms of the Baldwin-Mellon agreement were, in brief, that the British should exchange, for their note of hand for the sums borrowed and the accrued interest (which had technically run at 5 per cent.), a contract which fixed the total of indebtedness at \$4,600,000,000. That sum represented a material reduction in accrued interest, and bound them to pay us for several years at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on this total and thereafter at 4 per cent., over a period of sixty-two years. Of this 4 per cent., $3\frac{1}{2}$ would represent interest, and one-half of 1 per cent. would be a contribution to the sinking fund to extinguish the principal.

By virtue of this settlement, we have received from the British payments which are continuing regularly, amounting now to \$161,000,000 annually and presently to rise to something like \$184,000,000.

Since the United States Government is itself paying $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. on the Liberty Loans which supplied the funds for these British loans, we are actually paying more in interest than the British have paid or will pay in interest and sinking fund alike. But our Treasury Department has calculated that in due course of time our Liberties will be refunded at a lower rate of interest; and in the end the total paid by us to our own bondholders and the total paid by the British to our Treasury will be approximately the same. It is well, however, to keep this fact in mind in view of European criticism of American requirements.

This same method of settlement has been already applied to four other nations—namely, Poland, Finland, Hungary, and Lithuania—whose indebtedness amounted in the aggregate to approximately \$200,000,000. Since in all cases these latter loans were post-war, and the proceeds applied by the borrowers to peaceful reconstruction destined to produce revenue, no question was raised by the debtors. Of the four, also, only Poland, with a debt of \$178,000,000, was called upon to make any considerable effort in order to pay.

When the Belgian Debt Commission came to Washington, it frankly sought to obtain better terms than the previous applicants. In this purpose, it was ultimately successful, for the simple reason that it presented a legitimate case for special treatment. Of its total debt of \$418,000,000, the sum of \$172,000,000 had been incurred during the war, and at the Paris Conference President Wilson had joined the British and French representatives in the pledge that Belgium, which owed all three, should be permitted to pay in the proceeds of German reparations.

President Wilson's pledge was not binding upon the nation which subsequently rejected the Treaty of Versailles. But quite reasonably our Debt Commission recognized the fact that Belgium had here a claim. It was contrary to the principle we had firmly established that there should be no connection between reparations and debts, so far as we were concerned, to permit Belgium to transfer to us German obligations. But, instead, we offered to

forgive Belgium all interest payment on this part of her debt. The balance was to be funded upon the same terms as the British, and, in addition, Belgium was to make a small annual payment to extinguish the principal of the \$172,000,000. Finally, as in the case of Britain, we recognized that the present state of Belgian finances warranted easy terms as to immediate payments. As a consequence, Belgium will make small payments in the first years, rising steadily to the annual sum of approximately \$10,000,000, which will extend over the sixty-two year period.

In sum, then, we have by our settlements with six nations established in practice the policy that our debtors shall pay us over a sixty-two year period at the rate of 4 per cent. annually, save for concessions due to their present difficulties, which are expressed in easier payments in the first years. The single broad concession made has been a reduction of the sum of accrued interest by a substitution of a 3 per cent. for a 5 per cent. rate between the date of the debt and the start of payments.

Thus, while showing ourselves entirely reasonable in the matter of the application of terms, we have stood absolutely firm on the demand for payment in full as to principal, and, in addition, we have asked a rate of interest calculated to cover our own payments on our Liberties. All of which is tantamount to saying that we have adopted the principle that we shall be paid in full, and that our payments shall be without relation to any European complications.

The single moderating principle which we have proclaimed, which might conceivably have a bearing upon the French and Italian cases, is the declaration that the capacity of our debtors shall be the sole basis of terms. But this has obviously meant that we were willing to accept smaller preliminary payments, not that we were willing to consider reduction of the rate of payment on principal or accrued interest which would amount to cancellation of part of the debt.

II. ANGLO-FRENCH ASPECTS

If the United States has very definitely stood upon the demand that we should get our money back, what has been the European view? And, above all, what has been and is the policy of our European debtors, of whom Britain and France are the chief, but Italy also a considerable client? With

respect to us, Britain has already settled her obligation by virtue of the Mellon-Baldwin plan. But, because of the settlement with the United States, the British have formulated a definite policy with respect to their own debtors.

Prior to the American settlement, the British policy was expressed in the famous Balfour note, which was itself an echo of the equally famous Keynes plan for debt liquidation. In sum, the British proposed that there should be a general cancellation of debts and that the United States should blaze the way, to be followed by Britain. But the situations were quite different. We were owed \$12,000,000,000 and owed no one a cent. Britain owed us something less than \$5,000,000,000 and was owed \$8,000,000,000 irrespective of her share in reparations. But even Keynes conceded that the actual value of Britain's \$8,000,000,000 claims did not exceed the \$5,000,000,000 owed us.

Thus, the outcome of this cancellation proposal would have left Britain about even, cancelling herself a total claim worth no more than what she owed us; and the whole sacrifice would have been borne by us. When we indignantly rejected this proposal, British policy passed on to the second position—namely, that much against British wish and wholly because of American insistence, Britain would have to ask of her allies and of Germany enough to meet the payments made to America on the debt owed us, that is \$162,000,000 annually, rising in due course to \$184,000,000 and continuing for sixty-two years.

Having declined to be the angel, we therefore were made the villain of the European debt tangle. Britain approached all her debtors with the apologetic explanation that she had been driven to this course by the United States, which had repulsed the British plan of general cancellation.

At the same time, the British took another significant stand. They had asserted that they would only collect, from their allies and Germany, what was required to discharge the American debt; but since their allies were also debtors to the United States, they insisted that they should be paid *pari passu* with the United States. In other words, they served notice upon France and Italy that whatever agreement these nations made with the American treasury would have to be duplicated with the British.

It was with both these principles clearly established that M. Caillaux went to London in late August to discuss the question of the payment by France of a debt which aggregated approximately \$3,200,000,000, in principal and accrued interest. On this sum the British demanded in advance payments aggregating \$100,000,000 annually, and the French were prepared to offer just half that sum. Between the two widely different proposals it proved impossible to find any compromise; and it was not until the conference seemed doomed to break up in a deadlock that there was finally framed the Churchill-Caillaux compromise, which has made so great a stir on both sides of the Atlantic.

By virtue of this compromise, it was agreed that France should pay to Great Britain what amounted to 2 per cent. annually upon the principal and accrued interest—that is, upon the debt of \$3,200,000,000—for a period of sixty-two years. The French contribution would thus be slightly in excess of \$60,000,000 annually, as against the British contribution of \$184,000,000 annually to the American treasury.

Two further conditions were appended to the compromise, which made it obviously little more than a tentative agreement. Mr. Churchill insisted that if later, France should agree to pay the United States at a higher rate, that rate should automatically apply to the British debt. France, through M. Caillaux, insisted that the sum of French foreign debt payments should never exceed the sum of German reparations paid to France. On these points no formal agreement was made, because in reality everything was now contingent upon the Franco-American negotiations.

This Churchill-Caillaux compromise aroused instant and violent protest in the United States, for obvious reasons. The basic principle of our policy was that the debtor nations should pay 4 per cent. annually for sixty-two years. The Churchill-Caillaux agreement proposed payments at just half this rate, with the added condition that if Caillaux came to Washington and agreed to pay us at a higher rate, he would have to pay Britain correspondingly.

We were thus placed in the unpleasant position of becoming collectors for Great Britain of money which the British were prepared to forgive the French provided

we showed equal moderation. The French on their part were put in a position of resisting any American demands above 2 per cent. with double energy, because every dollar paid us necessitated another dollar for Britain. There was, then, a great deal of denunciation of British sharp practice; and both Churchill and Caillaux came in for round scolding while officially our Government made it clear that France could not expect to get the London terms in Washington.

The agreement was criticized in Paris, because it involved payments materially larger than the \$50,000,000 which Caillaux had gone to London prepared to offer as a maximum. In London, it was criticized because it fell far short of the \$100,000,000 which Mr. Churchill had announced as his minimum requirement. Nevertheless, it was reasonably plain that the compromise would stand, provided a similar settlement were negotiated in Washington, although the British protested against permitting the French to place any condition on their own payment by insisting that French payments to America and Britain should never exceed German payments to France.

Meantime Italy, still in the background, protested that in any event, since she was poorer than either France or Belgium, she could not undertake to pay more than half as much. That is, Italy demanded a settlement on the basis of 1 per cent., as contrasted with 4 for Britain to America and 2 for France to Britain. The Italian claim, too, was addressed both to Washington and London.

British dissatisfaction with the Caillaux-Churchill agreement had its foundation in the perception that with but \$60,000,000 coming from France, and certainly no more than half this sum from Italy and the other continental debtors, there was small prospect that German reparations would bridge the gap between American payments of \$184,000,000 and Allied remittances of \$90,000,000.

The United States, on the other hand, saw at once that if France paid but 2 per cent. instead of four, and if Italy's payments were even correspondingly reduced, then there would be no chance of realizing the national policy of making debt payments to us meet debt payments by our own treasury to the holders of our bonds; so that in effect our own taxpayers would be carrying part of the burden due

to our loans to our European associates. It was perceived, further, that the fact of this Churchill-Caillaux agreement had made the chances of our collecting in full much smaller, while it had saddled us with a rôle which was, to say the least, unpleasant.

Our own financial experts, to be sure, pointed out with some appositeness that even the apparent generosity of the British was unreal, since they had charged the French debtor 6 per cent. annual interest and compounded the unpaid obligations, thus swelling the total on which 2 per cent. was to be paid. Nevertheless, it was felt quite accurately that our situation in the Washington Conference was weakened by the London operation and that, in fact, we had been tied into a triangular debt discussion, although we had consistently maintained that neither interallied debts nor reparations concerned us.

III. THE FRENCH CASE

So much for the American and British theses; now as to the French: France, like Great Britain, is both a debtor and a creditor and, at least in theory, she is a greater creditor than debtor. She owes, roughly speaking, \$4,200,000,000 to the United States, and \$3,200,000,000 to the British, or \$7,400,000,000 in all. She is owed by her war Allies some \$3,000,000,000. She is also entitled to 52 per cent. of German reparations, against 22 per cent. for Britain. Like Britain, however, she has so far been unable to collect on her war loans and must regard the Russian portion as a total loss.

Assuming that France were to pay us at the British rate—that is, at the 4 per cent. rate, and that she would under the Churchill-Caillaux plan have to pay the same amount to Britain—her annual payments on foreign debt would amount to about \$300,000,000. This sum she would have to get in the main from German reparations or else from her own pocket, although she may hope for relatively small payments from her own debtors.

French views as to reparations have undergone many and far-reaching deflations. At first it was conceived that these payments would amount to enough to meet the costs of reconstructing the devastated areas, which now approximate \$7,000,000,000, and would also cover the costs of the foreign debts which amount to about the same figure. To-day, however, the French have

perceived that the sum of German reparations will never be anything like this amount. They have, then, arrived at something like a last position. They now propose to fund their debts to Britain and to the United States, but only with the distinct understanding that they shall never be asked to pay out in debt liquidation more annually than they get from Germany.

This is, of course, only a variation of the British thesis, which is that Britain shall get enough from her allies and Germany to pay America. What both Britain and France are after is to provide that their foreign debt shall be paid by their own foreign debtors.

If the German reparations were calculated to yield the \$500,000,000 which was once on everyone's tongue, the French situation would be comfortable, for France would be sure of \$260,000,000 and could safely calculate on getting from her own debtors the remaining \$40,000,000 to satisfy her British and American creditors. Even at the 4 per cent. rate she could then meet her foreign obligations from her foreign payments. But to-day it is obvious that German reparations cannot safely be estimated at more than half this sum. Moreover the British disclose their feelings on this subject by insisting that French payments be without regard to German, while the French stipulate that their payments shall be conditional upon German.

The whole case of M. Caillaux and of France before the United States will be based upon the argument that on a 2 per cent. basis France will have to pay to Britain and the United States upwards of \$150,000,000 annually, that this is the maximum of French capacity, and that this capacity exists solely on the assumption that Germany can pay as much to France annually in reparations. It will be fortified by the contention that it would be totally unjust to ask France to pay if Germany were by any method, legal or illegal, to escape payment.

Without venturing upon any prophecy, I suggest that it is hard to believe that the French nation under any circumstance would assent to any debt settlement either with Great Britain or with America, which left them bound to pay and even by assumption opened the way for a situation in which, while France paid, Germany escaped all or most obligations. The American argument that France should pay as she can,

without regard to anything else, and that France can pay whether Germany pays or not, is perhaps sound, but it certainly ignores the entire psychological as well as political aspect of the situation.

Fundamentally, the position of four nations in the matter of war debts is about the same. The United States owes no foreign debt; but more than half of its domestic debt arises from its foreign lendings. We desire to save our taxpayers the burden of the interest and principal of that debt. France and Great Britain owe and are owed. They would pass on to us the sums which come to them, leaving their own taxpayers without burden for foreign debt. Belgium is in the same situation, for she is assured on the part of Britain and France that they will take German promises to pay, while what Germany pays Belgium will in all human probability suffice to meet Belgian payments to us.

It is only when one comes to the Italian situation that real difference is disclosed. Italy is entitled to 10 per cent. of German reparations. But this sum will not suffice to pay her debts to Britain, France, or the United States, to all of whom she owes money. She is also in theory entitled to payments from the Succession states who inherit Austrian obligation to pay reparations. But with Austria and Hungary practically insolvent, and Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia in difficulties, the prospect of reparations for Italy is not bright.

In the end, Italy is likely to find herself condemned to pay on a foreign debt of around \$5,000,000,000 with practically no money coming to her from abroad. Britain, France, and Belgium might conceivably come out even or, well-nigh even, if reparations hold up; Italy, the poorest of the lot, has to face the problem of paying out of her own pocket with no prospect of eventual or immediate recovery. That is why Italy is bound to insist upon the most favorable terms, and certain to hold out for large reductions on any scale yet suggested, whether it be the Baldwin-Mellon or the Caillaux-Churchill plan.

All the European maneuvering, however, comes down in the long run to the single fact, so roundly rejected in Washington—namely, that in the main, despite the various intervening steps, the whole matter of inter-allied debts is inextricably involved with German reparations. In practice, Germany will in conformity with the Dawes Plan

make certain payments which in the first instance will be divided among France, Britain, Italy, and Belgium, with small remainders for other states.

Britain, having received her share of the Dawes payment, will demand of France and of Belgium payments on their debts, and of course she will make similar demands upon Italy. But France declines to pay either Britain or America more than she gets from Germany. So in reality she will pass on to Britain her payments from Germany to the extent she is obligated to Britain, who will pass these as well as her own German receipts on to America. Belgium will transfer to France and Britain what she gets from Germany less a sum which will cover her American obligations. Italy, while passing on what she gets from Germany, will have to make substantial contributions of her own.

But, aside from Italy, what starts as reparations will be transformed into debt payments; and, on any present estimate of German payments, all of it will ultimately reach the American treasury without proving adequate to liquidate what is owed us by France, Belgium, and Britain, to say nothing of Italy. Thus, in the last analysis, Germany will pay and we will receive, but the other nations concerned will act as no more than transmission agencies.

If, however, Germany fails to pay, Britain will still be bound to pay us, and so will Belgium, Poland, and our other debtors. But France is resolved not to undertake any obligation of a similar unconditional sort. Moreover, if France binds herself to pay us, and Germany fails to pay her, there is a new incentive to France to use force to compel German payment; for France the American creditor always waits.

My own personal view is that a settlement of the French debt to the United States on substantially the Churchill-Caillaux terms would not merely prove about the most advantageous ever available, but would contribute very materially to removing the last real obstacle to general readjustment. To hold out for an integral settlement on the Baldwin-Mellon basis would be to postpone any adjustment of either the British or American claims upon France, conceivably compromise the security-pact negotiations, and possibly lead to a change in French party government, and to a return to more drastic German policies on the part of France.

If the British have agreed to liquidate a three-billion-dollar debt on the basis of a sixty-million-dollar annual payment, the dominating reason is that, although they need the money vastly more than we do, they are satisfied this is the maximum of what they can collect; and Churchill has only covered his own political position by insuring himself against the deadly charge that the American negotiators could get more than he could extract from Caillaux.

In any event, it is clear that we are closer than ever before to a settlement of the interallied debt problem, having already disposed of reparations under the Dawes Plan. Actually, the final disposition would seem to turn on the success or failure of the French negotiations in Washington.

IV. THE DAWES PLAN REPORT

Late August saw the publication of the first report of the Dawes Committee covering the operations of the initial year. On the financial side this report was of but limited importance. The money for the first annual payment under the arrangement came not from Germany but in the main from the proceeds of the foreign loan and from railroads. Approximately \$200,000,000, or 80 per cent. of the total, represented the proceeds of the loan, which was one of the details of the whole scheme. The remainder, \$50,000,000 came from the railroad company organized under the act.

The American Agent General, Mr. S. Parker Gilbert, whose tact and efficiency have won praise on all sides, in his report which covered the first eight months of the operation of the plan properly called attention to the fact that the great achievements lay outside of the immediate limits of the operation of the plan itself. As a consequence of the settlement of London of last year, the German currency had been stabilized, the German budget balanced, the whole tangled question of reparations had been taken out of the area of politics either national or international. Moreover, he noted that Germany had fulfilled her obligations with absolute exactitude.

As a consequence of German fulfilment, Allied evacuation of the Ruhr, begun as early as July, was carried to completion and even extended to the sanction cities of Düsseldorf and Duisburg, which were occupied long before the Ruhr. Speaking broadly, then, it was fair to say that the

first year of the Dawes Plan had resulted in a very striking improvement of the whole international situation, and particularly in the relations between France and Germany.

On the other hand, Mr. Gilbert was very careful to emphasize what should be appreciated by all American observers, who rather hastily rush to the conclusion that the Dawes Plan has already been finally successful and has "solved" the reparations problem—namely, that so far the experimental stage has not been passed. Nor will it be passed next year when German budget contributions to reparations rise from nothing to a possible \$125,000,000. It is only when the plan has reached the permanent stage, and the total German contribution should be \$625,000,000 annually, half of this derived from the budget, that it will be possible to make definitive judgments.

Already, moreover, there is a marked tendency in all financial circles to recognize that reparations will hardly reach the expected figures. On the contrary, British estimates already fix the German payments at \$250,000,000 annually, and at \$300,000,000 as an outside maximum. France, too, has come to fear some similar shrinkage. It is the gradual appreciation of the realities of reparations which contributes to complicate the debt settlement.

Meantime it is clear that despite many hopeful aspects in the situation Germany is passing through an excessively difficult economic and financial crisis. The enormous crash of the properties of the late Hugo Stinnes has served to call world attention to one phase of this domestic crisis, but it has many phases. Germany is importing vastly more than she exports, although less, perhaps, than her official figures indicate. She is also crippled by an absence of capital, although she is fortunate in the possession of an economic machine which is intact and in admirable condition.

Stabilization of the mark, like the restoration of the pound sterling to par, has had a very serious if transitory influence upon the domestic conditions of Britain and Germany, neither of which shows anything like the superficial evidences of recovery and prosperity which are discoverable in France or Belgium. But both France and Belgium are still living under a degree of inflation, and their stabilization crisis lies ahead.

The Dawes Plan has proven a blessing for Germany, so far, because it has provided a way by which France could be paid with-

out great demands upon Germany, and it has led to the evacuation of German territory and to the elimination of the most acute dangers of the post-war period. Moreover, it is worth noting, in view of criticism of American financial policies, that not only did the Dawes Plan have an American inception but also we supplied at least half of the money necessary to float it.

In sum, if Europe is now discussing a security pact, and the President of the German Reichstag, Herr Loebe, can return from a Paris visit with unconcealed optimism with respect of future Franco-German relations, the explanation is largely to be found in the fact that the Dawes Plan has in a single year cleared the atmosphere. Now that the Ruhr has been evacuated, the stay of the Allies in Cologne can hardly be prolonged; and with a retirement from the Cologne Zone there will be an end to German fear of French purpose to stay permanently on the left bank of the Rhine.

The underlying explanation for German willingness to consider a security pact is also disclosed by the facts contained in the Dawes Plan report: Germany must have capital, she cannot get it from abroad while the Franco-German situation remains unsettled, and the fears on either side of the Rhine—accentuated by bitter memories, recent and long-standing—leave the door open for new strife. Having managed by virtue of the Dawes Plan to remove money disputes from the area of international politics, the real German design would seem to be to get rid of territorial and political issues in a similar fashion. Thus the security pact is the natural if not inevitable consequence of a successful Dawes Plan—successful, be it understood, not perhaps as a final financial adjustment but as a useful and necessary preliminary stage.

V. GENEVA

Outside of the various financial questions, the Sixth Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva has supplied the most interesting incident of the past four months. Once more the attendance of Americans has demonstrated the interest felt in this country for the great experiment, while the presence of at least two prime ministers and nearly a score of foreign ministers has indicated the growing vogue of the League as an annual meeting place of statesmen.

Nevertheless, it is undeniable that the

immediate happenings at the session have not only been far less dramatic than last year but also measurably dominated by outside circumstances. Not what was taking place at Geneva, not the matters on the agenda of the session, not even the acute crisis over Mosul which promised to bring Turkey and Britain into a collision which was narrowly averted three years ago, could rank with the Anglo-Franco-German discussions of a security pact which were going forward but were not in any sense the business of the Assembly.

A year ago, with Ramsay MacDonald and Edouard Herriot present, the League had adopted the Protocol, which was designed to make the League a real guarantor of world peace and to reinforce the Covenant by specifically imposing responsibilities upon all signatory nations. The close union between France and Britain in that hour and the immense importance of the Protocol itself served to make the meeting the most interesting in the short history of the League.

But the rejection of the Protocol by Britain and the undertaking of localized and separate pact-making, covering the limited area of the western frontiers of Germany, has served to minimize the permanent value of the work of last year. Moreover, the importance of the gathering was lessened by the fact that in the end the hope of German presence proved vain.

Champions of the League and adherents of the Protocol might well point out that the security pact, when framed, would be under the sanction of the League and in the spirit of the Protocol. But it was not less plain that whereas last year's agreement would have transformed the League itself into a most potent and direct agency for the preservation of peace and the punishment of any aggressor nation, the new security pact would do no more than repeat the formula of the League itself and possibly, but by no means certainly, leave to the League the decision of responsibility in certain cases.

Unmistakably, the statesmanship of Britain and Germany was resolved not to surrender any measure of independence to League control; and Britain in particular was resolved not to undertake to maintain peace by the use of her own resources, save as her immediate interests were concerned and her own political leaders so recognized. Last year MacDonald pledged British power to defend peace and to resist ag-

gression wherever discoverable. This year all discussion centered upon the extent to which British power might be employed against a country violating the proposed security pact covering the Rhine boundary.

Other nations, to be sure, notably in the Balkans, were discussing similar localized pacts. And the friends of the Protocol might well reason that in due time the whole of the checker-board of European frontiers might be covered by regional agreements, and that on such a basis a general pact might be framed. Yet one could not mistake the fact that the failure of the Protocol and the substitution of the security pact had in no small degree impaired the prestige of the League. Last year the League was the center of world-peace proposals. This year attention was directed not at Geneva but at Lausanne or elsewhere, and toward the meeting not of the Assembly of the League but of the representatives of France, Britain, and Germany.

As to the progress of these negotiations, Austen Chamberlain was the most outspoken prophet of success and of the appearance of Germany as a member nation at Geneva next year. But his vigorous eleventh-hour effort to persuade Germany to appear came to nothing. Not until the Assembly had adjourned would the Germans agree to meet their former foes in formal negotiations.

In the matter of the security pact itself, despite wide differences in fundamental conceptions, the last exchange of notes between Paris and Berlin and the unmistakably friendly tone of the French note itself not alone insured a conference but contributed materially to assist the German Foreign Minister, who finds himself attacked from behind by the Nationalist groups, just as similar elements in the French population continue to bombard M. Briand.

To-day, as in all past discussions, the main obstacle remains the question of French rights to support her Polish and Czech allies in case they are attacked either by Germany or Russia. Such support involves the crossing of German territory and the entrance into that Rhine Zone, the neutralization of which is to constitute one of the main circumstances of the security pact itself. Germany seeks, in guaranteeing the security of France, to escape from all possible danger of French interference in her

Eastern policies, although she offers arbitration treaties with Poland and Czechoslovakia. She asks also that since she is disarmed she shall not be required to participate in any League operation against any aggressor nation.

France, on her side, while anxious to obtain from Germany an assurance of permanent German acceptance of the present Franco-German frontiers and from Britain a guarantee of those frontiers, does not wish to surrender her alliances with Poland and Czechoslovakia or her right to act on their behalf at the Rhine in case of German aggression.

These conflicting views are only reconcilable, if at all, by means of some compromise placing with the League the right to decide that any German action may have such a character as to warrant French intervention, thus taking from France not the power to act in certain circumstances but the right to pronounce upon the circumstances. It is toward such a solution that British diplomacy is working.

Personally, I believe a pact is inevitable because of the advantages for all concerned. The removal of French apprehension means the slow but sure elimination of all the restraints which France can now legally put upon Germany, and the freedom of Germany to reorganize her national life and industry. To free her soil from armies of occupation, her administration from outside control and to obtain large loans to furnish her necessary working capital, these are the main necessities for Germany and have been the objectives of the Luther-Stresemann cabinet, the first really able cabinet Germany has had since the close of the Empire.

But the particular views or even prejudices of the British, French, and German publics make the task of their foreign ministers difficult, for each public inevitably suspects the policies of the other governments and is easily excited to believe that its safety, its independence, or its vital interests are being sacrificed either foolishly or blindly. The hopeful circumstance lies in the fact that all three governments recognize the necessity of agreement, while all three publics, despite their limited and selfish views, do earnestly and emphatically desire peace.

We are, then, I believe, on the edge of some far-reaching agreement to stabilize

the present European situation; and the next few weeks may see Europe at one moment adjusting its debts to America and its relations within its own continental limits. Neither negotiation will be particularly easy nor without bad quarters of an hour. But the change of atmosphere is what counts, for it was the atmosphere rather than the actual issues which made European peace precarious not alone before 1914 but since 1918.

Meantime in Morocco, the French and Spanish having struck hands and planned a common action, and Marshal Petain having taken direct command of the greatly reinforced French forces while Spanish troops have been sent to Africa, the campaign against Abd-el-Krim enters a new phase which has already been marked by considerable, if incidental, successes. In Syria, France still seems involved in an expensive and dangerous colonial war; while, as I have said before, the Turks at Geneva have taken a stand over Mosul which seems to promise difficult times.

In China conditions on the whole have worsened after a period of quiet, and new shooting in Shanghai by the British troops has complicated a grave situation. An identic note despatched by the Nine Powers signatory of the Washington Conference, promising China a conference to discuss certain reliefs, tariff and otherwise, was accompanied by a stiff warning to China to restore order as a condition antecedent to obtaining concessions. But the note made little impression, and the prospect of improvement in this situation is slight in the extreme.

I should close this brief summary by noting that the remarks of the French Premier, M. Painlevé at Geneva, suggesting the preparation for a conference at Geneva and on the subject of limitation of armaments, seems to block the way pretty completely to President Coolidge's proposed conference on the same subject. In reality, it expresses the determination of the League not to permit America to conduct, outside the League, discussions which the League regards within its own bailiwick. It also indicates the determination of France not to come to another Washington Conference in view of its experience at the last, which remains a bitter memory in the French mind.



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THE PRINCIPAL BUSINESS STREET OF FIUME

FIUME TO-DAY

BY CHARLES H. SHERRILL

ONE day in Padua last July, the writer was struck by the frequent appearance of *Fiume!* painted above front doors by patriotic householders. Here was a vivid reminder of how that word had but recently stirred the imagination of all Italy. A torch to inflame the patriotism of a whole people, wielded by so inspiring a torchbearer as D'Annunzio, the magic of whose poetry and prose gives reason enough for foreigners to study Italian. By his dramatic seizure of Fiume and its annexation to Italy, while the elder statesmen of all Europe were undecidedly discussing its future, the poet blazoned his name across Italy's history as a man of action of the most vigorous sort.

The frequent repetition of *Fiume!* over the Paduan portals started the writer to musing over Fiume's day of glory, and to wondering whether its present conformed in any way with it, or with its pre-war status. Many pens had written of Fiume and many tongues had talked thereof; but how many of those writers and speakers had actually seen the place with their own eyes? Why not go there? It is only an over-night steamer trip from Venice.

A gondolier will swing you out to the steamer lying off the Doges' Palace, and at

4.30 in the afternoon you will set forth on your pilgrimage down the Lagoon, along the Lido's narrow strip of sand, and out through a cut into the Adriatic, presently to enjoy one of its justly famous sunsets. Soon after daybreak next morning, you will sight the mountainous coast of the Istrian promontory, part of *Italia Irredenta*, the unredeemed Italy for which Italians longed in vain for so many years. Your steamer will make brief stops at several charming villages snuggled against the base of steep hillsides, and finally you will run into a great protected bay at the base of which lies your journey's end, Fiume.

Few coasts are so beautiful as that of ancient Dalmatia, skirting almost the entire length of the Adriatic's easterly shore. One might call it a long series of deeply indented bays, and frequently one bay will but mask one or more others tucked away behind islands or steep bluffs jutting out from the mountainous mainland. Only Norway's fjords, with their sharper outlines, can surpass in picturesque beauty this Dalmatian chain of deeply inset bays.

So capacious is the island-gated bay fronting Fiume (almost twenty miles long) that two breakwaters had to be built across

the harbor front to protect its docks in stormy weather. One of them protects the northerly two-thirds of Fiume's harbor, and the other the southerly one-third called Porto Baross. Remember this distinction, for it will prove important to our investigations. The steamer lands us at one of the sheltered piers of the main harbor, and right on the waterfront and also on the tiny Piazza Dante, stands the Hotel Europa. Here we may most conveniently begin our sightseeing, because this hotel was D'Annunzio's headquarters.

When Fiume Was Hungary's Port

Our study of Fiume's pre-war status will not take us long. We shall soon learn that it formed part of the Hungarian province of Croatia, and that just as Austria used to favor Trieste as her only outlet on the sea, so Hungary did everything possible to increase the import and export trade of Fiume, her only harbor. Fiume was just as much the pampered darling of Budapest as Trieste was of Vienna. Croatia now belongs to the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes as they themselves call it, or Yugoslavia, as Versailles named it (called South Slavia by English newspapers). The Yugoslav frontier runs along the upper edge of this small city of 45,000, and then drops perpendicularly down through it into the harbor, taking in that part of the old city called Sussak, and that southerly part of the old harbor called Porto Baross. The new frontier line divides Fiume about as much as Forty-second Street divides New York City!

D'Annunzio's Coming

The adjoining hinterland is entirely Yugoslav, and so is the railroad that comes down through it to the now divided city. But before we further investigate Fiume's present, let us turn back to the fateful and glorious 12th of September, 1919.

Sixty-five per cent. of the Fiumans had declared by plebiscite in favor of joining Italy, but the final decision of the Allies upon their future was long in coming. After the Armistice, the city had been occupied first by the Serbs, then by a mixed force of English, French, Italians, Japanese, Serbs, and some Americans, and finally by the Italians alone. Now the Italians, grenadiers as well as naval detachments, were ordered withdrawn. Then across the Adriatic came the clarion call of D'An-



FIUME, IN ITS RELATION TO OTHER ADRIATIC PORTS

nunzio—"Italia o Morte" for Fiume, a call that echoed sonorously all up and down the Italian peninsula. Better still was his promise to come personally to their aid. With growing excitement the city learned that he was assembling his few hundred volunteers over near Trieste, that he had actually started his march to their deliverance.

Before dawn on the fateful 12th of September, the whole town was out upon the streets. All sorts of exciting rumors spread, each contradicting the other. Their hero was coming, was not coming, would arrive at break of day, had deserted them! Finally, at 10.30 A.M., in rolled his automobile, smothered with flowers thrown from crowded balconies and even more crowded streets—in and on until it reached the Piazza Dante. The history of Fiume had reached the apex of its glory!

When D'Annunzio addressed the eager populace from the balcony of the Hotel Europa, the little square and every nearby street was packed to suffocation with cheering, delirious throngs. His announcement of the annexation of Fiume soon followed. It was a *fait accompli*, Fiume had joined Italy. The Allies accepted it, the map was definitely changed, Fiume was Italian and will continue so to be.

But would Yugoslavia accept this decision? Would she be willing to relinquish her greatly needed outlet to the Adriatic? And would D'Annunzio stop with this triumph or try to seize all the Dalmatian coast for Italy? For weeks Fiume was indeed a danger spot to international peace.

Fiume's Loss of Trade

Thus far we have considered only the city's pre-war status, and have watched the poet warrior, D'Annunzio, use Fiume as a torch to ignite the patriotism of all Italy, determined to a man that the Italian flag should never be lowered in that brave little city. The reader may comment that all this needed no visit to be understood by interested foreigners. Yes, but now we are coming to the part that can be understood only by those willing to see with their own eyes the Solomon's Judgment which befell Fiume, and investigate on the spot the results of that extraordinary decision.

First of all, let us inquire if Fiume is to-day the torch that she was in 1919. Even before we leave Venice, we can there learn two facts of significance: First, that whereas before the war steamers ran from Venice to Fiume in ten hours, now the service takes fifteen hours, is only bi-weekly and requires a Government subsidy to exist, so sadly has the trade dwindled between the two ports. Second, that because of that change in trade, Great Britain has reduced her consulate in Fiume to a vice-consulate, and raised her vice-consulate in Venice to a consulate.

When you reach Fiume, follow up this



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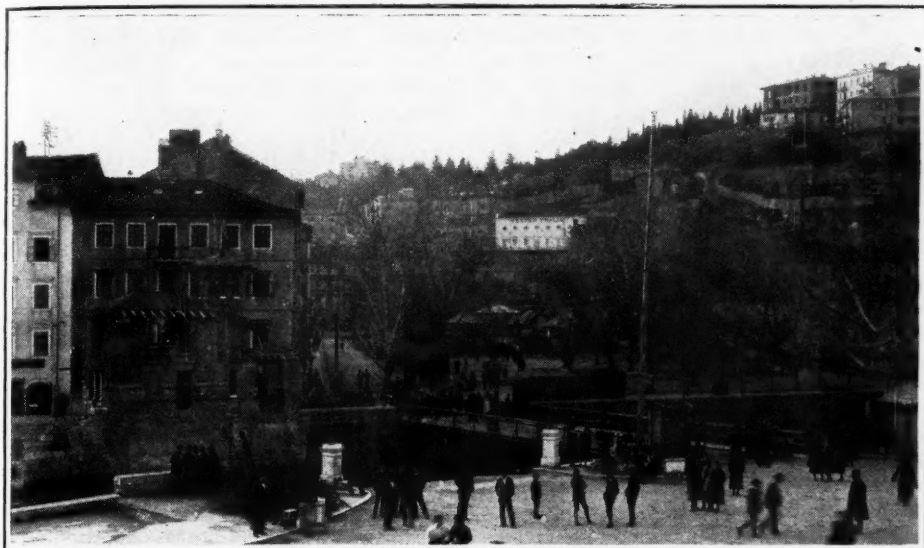
IN THE JUGOSLAV SECTION OF FIUME

(The city is divided into two sections, one under the political control of Yugoslavia and the other under Italian jurisdiction)

consulate clue and you will learn that at least three foreign consuls there have recommended that their offices be closed because the port's business has so greatly diminished. In one of them, only five consular invoices have been made out during the past year; we decline to say in which one! Of course, it is rather a delicate question as to whether or not these consulates shall be closed, for there is involved the possibility of offending Italy's *amour propre*. Don't forget that *Fiume!* is still painted over many more doorways than those we saw in Padua. A certain English Queen exclaimed that after her death "Calais" would be found written on her heart. So, too, is "Fiume" inscribed on the heart of all Italy. And rightly so, for history affords few more brilliant strokes than that of D'Annunzio and his men annexing that port to Italy. Yet can it be that Fiume has subsided into a glorious memory, justly crowned with laurels and bays, but no longer possessing importance as an event?

The cold fact stands out that Fiume, once the pampered pet of Hungary, retains to-day only one-third of her pre-war commerce. Trieste continues to enjoy the same commerce that she had before the war, because she remains the natural sea outlet for Austria, even though her flag be now Italian. Of course, Yugoslavia has no interest in continuing freight differentials to favor an Italian Fiume, and also we have noticed that Yugoslavia owns both the railroad and the hinterland it drains.

Now the moment has come for the visitor to leave the Piazza Dante, and mount the steeply sloping streets of the city, until he can look down upon it and the now divided harbor; for thus only can the gruesome Solomon's Judgment upon Fiume be understood. And it will take only a few minutes to grasp it completely from that vantage point. The inquiring traveler will find a glorious prospect spread out before him. No writing, not even a map, can explain as can this outlook how entirely Fiume, Sussak, and Porto Baross are but different sections of the same little city. A fence or a narrow brook divides the Italian part from that belonging to Jugo-



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THE BRIDGE WHICH CONNECTS THE SLAV AND ITALIAN SECTIONS OF FIUME

slavia. Everybody carries a local passport good for a radius of 15 kilometers, and all nationalities come and go freely. The writer could show no Yugoslav visa, but he had no difficulty with the soldiers at the customs gate—he simply left his passport with them till he finished visiting the Porto Baross docks!

An important export brought down by the railway is lumber. From the hillside we can observe that the Italian part of the harbor possesses warehouses but no space to stack lumber. Yugoslavia—which needs a port with warehouses—was given Porto Baross, with no warehouses but plenty of space to store lumber!

We have noted that Yugoslavia has no reason to grant railway favors to an Italian Fiume. More ominous still for that city's future is the opening last July of the new Yugoslav railway to its fine port of Spalato, farther to the south. Is this the beginning of the end of Fiume's history as a port? A solemn question for the gallant little city.

The Statesmanship of Pashitch

The picture we have tried to paint of the favored port of one nation becoming later a flaming torch to fire the patriotism of another nation—of how an international danger spot, vexing the statesmen of many lands, lost the virus of its danger—would be incomplete if we stopped here. It is neces-

sary to introduce two other figures on the scene, two really great figures of international significance. One is Pashitch, the 72-year-old Prime Minister of Yugoslavia—personification of Serb common sense, patience and astuteness. The other is Mussolini, greatest of all Pan-Italians since Cavour, and perhaps even greater than he, because of the intrepid service he has rendered Italy during a post-war crisis which paralyzed the courage of most European statesmen. The writer has had the privilege of meeting and speaking freely with both these great men, and is convinced that it is due to them that Fiume the danger spot has become for all concerned, of whatever nation, an honorable memory.

Three years ago, Pashitch spoke freely to the writer upon the Fiume question, said things obviously inexpedient to publish then. And as he spoke, he displayed amazing appreciation of and consideration for the viewpoint of the Italian people on the dangerous question of Fiume's nationality. This does not mean that he forgot for a moment his country's need of an outlet on the Adriatic, but he refused to become excited as was almost everybody else, upon whether Fiume should be Serb or Italian. If he had been as one-sidedly nationalistic as are most statesmen, or as demagogic as are many of them, Fiume would have been even more perilous to international peace.

Fortunately for a war-wearied world, as well as for his own passionately loved land, he proved himself a super-statesman. All that he then sketched out in our conversation has since come to pass, and for the benefit of all concerned.

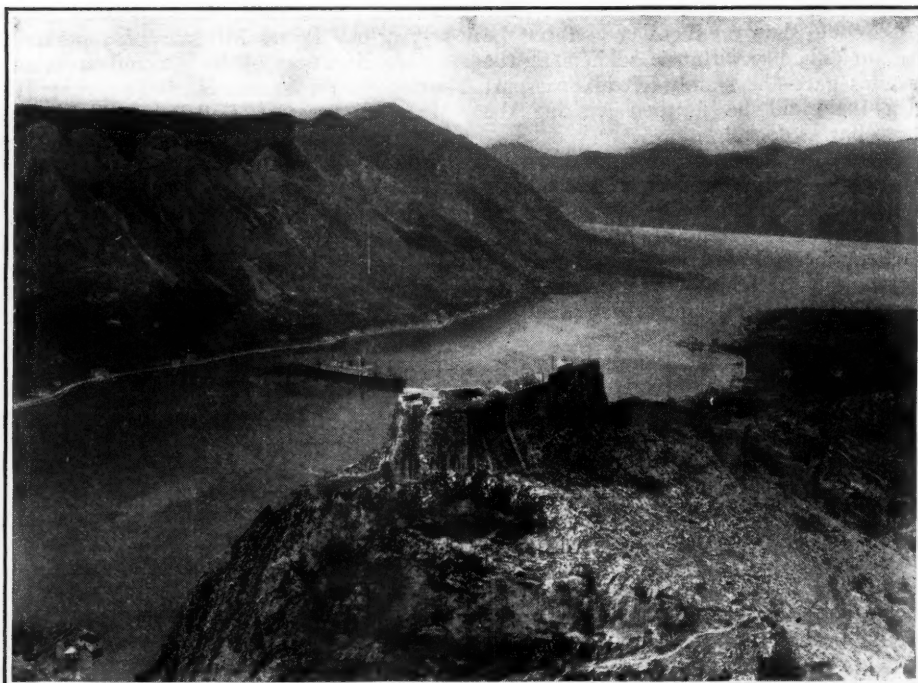
Mussolini's Wise Handling of a Dangerous Situation

Some of us perhaps forget that no small part of the Fiume danger was that this movement, under the abundant enthusiasm of the poet-hero, might spread to the south, down the Dalmatian coast. There is no great man without his detractors, and so there were some who said that D'Annunzio wishes to make himself President of all Italy by remaining in the limelight, and would therefore seek to prolong the Fiume episode by a southern extension.

Here was one of the many problems which Mussolini, that incarnation of Italy of all the ages, handled with a patriotic calm and

completeness that cannot be too greatly praised. Much is said, and rightly, of his great work in suppressing the Reds and the terror they had set up all over Italy, of his courageously brusque pruning of padded government payrolls at great political danger to himself, and of his exposure of License masquerading as Liberty. But, unless the writer is much mistaken, far too little credit has been given Mussolini for his practical, untheatrical localizing of the danger of Fiume, so that its settlement redounds to the credit of all involved. Without his strong but deft hand at the helm, Fiume would have been more than a torch; it might have lighted an Adriatic conflagration, into which more powers than Jugoslavia and Italy would surely have been dragged.

Thus a new war was possibly averted by the statesmanlike qualities of the two premiers, Pashitch and Mussolini, in the crisis resulting from the seizure of Fiume six years ago.



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THE BEAUTIFUL DALMATIAN COAST, THE EASTERN SHORE OF THE ADRIATIC SEA

(This is Cattaro harbor, commercial outlet of the old Kingdom of Montenegro and now part of Jugoslavia. Cattaro is the southern extremity of the mountainous Dalmatian coast, surpassed only by Norway in picturesque splendor. Some of these Dalmatian peaks rise to a height of 5,000 feet)



ALL THE COMFORTS OF WINTER MOTORING IN THE PIONEERING PERIOD—A SCENE IN ROCK CREEK PARK, NEAR WASHINGTON

(Ten years ago one automobile in seventy was of the enclosed type; now more than half the cars made are "closed")

TWENTY-FIVE YEARS OF THE MOTOR-CAR

BY H. W. SLAUSON, M.E.

"IS THE automobile ready for a long trip, James? Father wants me to drive to Albany, and I am going to try to make the one hundred and fifty miles in two days, even if I have to drive all night to do it."

"I think it's all right, Mr. John. I just cleaned the spark-plug, ground the valve, and put a new link in the drive chain. Your father just bought four new tires which we can carry as spares. If that shouldn't be enough to come back on, I suppose we can get some more at a bicycle store in Albany. But we will need some extra cans for carrying gasoline from New York, for in a good many of these small towns they don't know what gasoline is and will try to give us kerosene. They keep it in small quantities, to be sure, in drug-stores for cleaning gloves, but that is about all."

"Well, get whatever you need and be sure to put in plenty of good strong rope, for we never have taken a long trip yet when that hasn't come in handy for towing us out of mud-holes or up steep hills. And speaking of hills, I wish that Father would buy one of those new two-cylinder automobiles that have just come out, and I believe that we

could make every hill without having to back up a single one of them.

"Those country horses are going to give us some trouble, for they are enforcing that law pretty strictly that makes an automobile driver pull off to the side of the road, stop the engine, and get out and lead every horse that he meets, safely past his machine. I wonder if horses will ever get used to the noise and speed of these things that go by them with a man holding a handle instead of a pair of reins, and nothing in front or behind to pull or push them. And oh! James, by the way, be sure to take out that bungle-some umbrella-like sunshade. If it's going to rain I'd rather get wet or wear my rain-coat than to be bothered with that thing which will slow us down to ten or twelve miles an hour. Some day I hope they'll invent an automobile with a folding top of some kind, such as we used to have on buggies and phaetons when we took our best girls out driving."

"James, can you get the car ready for a little jaunt up to Montreal and be back by to-morrow night?"

"Yes, Mr. John, I've just washed the

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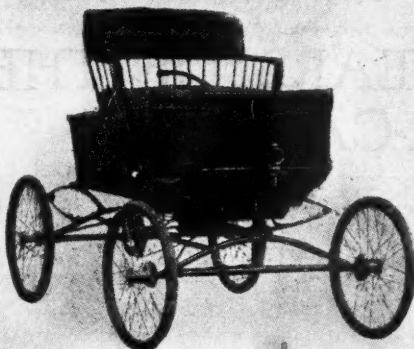
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\$600

DELIVERY IN SIXTY DAYS

The motive power is known and understood the world over—is no experiment, but is always reliable and under perfect control. The "Locomobile" is unsurpassed for speed, hill climbing (easily ascended Mt. Washington, altitude 6300 ft.), or travelling over bad roads. It has proved as fast as an express train, will follow the slowest truck, or stop immediately. No noise, jar, or odor. It has been repeatedly operated for $\frac{1}{4}$ cent per mile, and the power can be renewed at even the smallest village. The weight, complete, is but 400 pounds, yet the "Locomobile" is graceful and attractive, and the running parts strong and durable.

Send for illustrated catalogue and interesting reading-matter about self-propelled vehicles.



"NO BETTER WILL BE MADE"

(So said this advertisement, which is typical of those appearing in magazines of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS type in 1899. Advertising sections then contained many pages of bicycle announcements, with an occasional horseless carriage "ad")

dust off from our Atlantic City trip and she is ready for any distance at any speed. We are still carrying that new tire that you got, as a spare, and the old tires look good for another seven or eight thousand miles."

"That's fine, James; take along a couple of thermos bottles for hot coffee and we can fill them on the way. Mrs. Brown and some of her friends are ready to come back from their trip down the St. Lawrence, and I know they'll all be more comfortable if they drive down in the car than if they come on the night train—and

we can make almost as good time as the train too. But speaking of time, do you remember that first trip we made to Albany twenty-five years ago?"

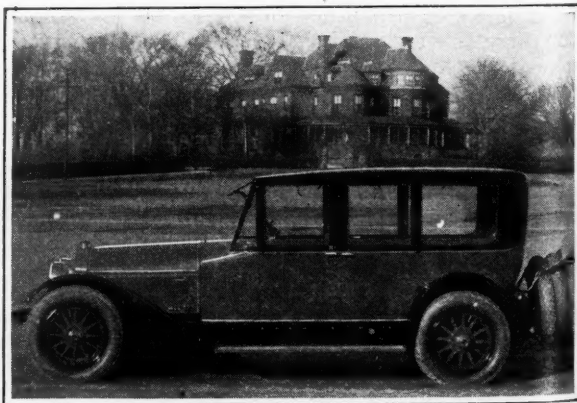
Then and Now

Yes, this conversation is between the same John Brown and the same chauffeur, James—but it is twenty-five years later. The car is not the same, of course, but it might be of the same make or at least designed by the same engineer as the one-lunger which was driven backward up many a hill because the power obtained on the low gear was not sufficient for some of the steeper grades—hills which the car of to-day could climb on high without a murmur.

John Brown is fifty now, and instead of being the fortunate son of one of the very few men twenty-five years ago who owned an automobile, he now has two or three of his own and is one of the seventeen million in this country alone who control their own transportation medium in the form of a four-wheeled self-propelled vehicle, capable of developing from thirty to one hundred horse-power.

More Motor-Cars than Telephones

How many families boasted of their own horse and carriage in the old days—and by "old days" I mean a mere quarter of a century ago? Doctors, of course, and other men whose profession or business took them around into various parts of the country. But for the average city dweller, the privately owned horse was a luxury that but few maintained; and now you can buy a real



REPRESENTING PRESENT-DAY PERFECTION IN
AUTOMOBILE MANUFACTURE

(This limousine is produced by the same Locomobile Company which made, twenty-five years ago, the horseless carriage pictured above)



MR. ELWOOD HAYNES, IN HIS FIRST CAR

(Made in 1893 and claimed to be "America's first mechanically successful automobile." Mr. Haynes—who died last April—was its inventor, designer, and builder while superintendent of an Indiana natural gas and oil company)

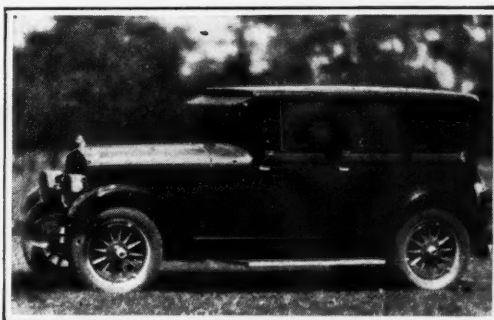
automobile on the time payment plan for an initial outlay of but twelve or fifteen dollars, and the monthly payments need not be very much more than the rental of your telephone.

This country managed to exist somehow long before the telephone was invented; but after this very useful device became a part of our daily life we have come to look upon it as a necessity and to wonder who can do without this most valuable convenience in his home or office. But according to some recently compiled figures, there are just about three million families in this country who consider the automobile more necessary than the telephone, for there are close to

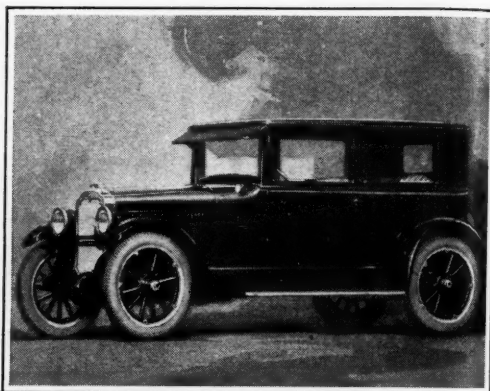
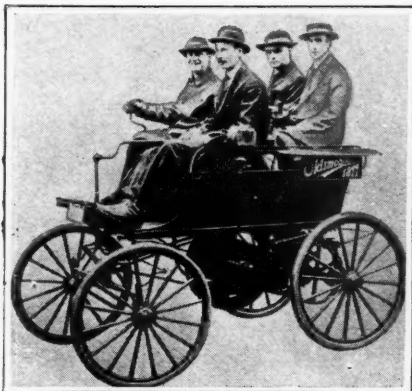
20 per cent. fewer telephones in use in this country than motor-cars. This growth of the motor-car into a popular necessity is the more marvelous when we realize that the previously mentioned John Brown might not have encountered three automobiles on his trip to Albany, whereas he would have passed by even more farmhouses which would have had telephonic communication with either Albany or New York.

Motoring Cheaper than Before the War

I don't know just how much it cost John Brown to make his round trip to Albany and back twenty-five years ago, but



THE ORIGINAL FRANKLIN CAR (DRIVEN BY ITS PURCHASER) AND THE MOST RECENT MODEL



OLDSMOBILES—A QUARTER-CENTURY APART

(The first car was completed in 1899, though as early as August, 1897, Mr. Olds had been authorized by his associates to "build one carriage in as nearly perfect a manner as possible and complete it at the earliest possible moment")

I do know that motoring can proudly claim to be the one necessary activity of everyday living in this country which costs less than before the war.

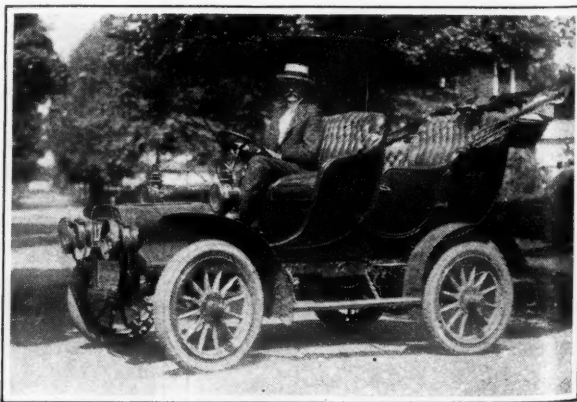
Two hundred and sixteen dollars today is required to buy the same amount and quality of furniture which could be purchased for one hundred dollars in 1913; but only seventy-one dollars nowadays is needed to buy one hundred dollars' worth of automobiles on the basis of their 1913 cost. Other comparisons are needless.

Vast use and quantity production have brought this condition about, for in 1913 there were less than a million and a half cars and trucks in use, as against the seventeen million of to-day. Then, as now, however, everybody lived in houses or buildings of some kind and therefore required furniture, so that the percentage of increase in the use of house furnishings has merely kept pace with the growth in population. So, too, everybody wore clothes in those days—even more than now, probably—which accounts for the fact that a dollar's worth of clothing in 1913 now costs \$1.74, whereas a dollar's worth of 1913 automobile can to-day be bought for seventy-one cents.

We can put this decreased price of automobiles in another form, and, inasmuch as the source of all wealth is Mother Earth, can say that it cost the

farmer in 1913 the proceeds from the sale of nearly fifteen hundred bushels of wheat to buy an automobile; whereas to-day he can sell but five hundred bushels of wheat and buy the same quality of car. Thus, in terms of produce, we find that the automobile costs but one-third of what was the case twelve years ago.

From the selfish standpoint we can say that this wonderful development of motor-car transportation now enables us to carry our family and friends comfortably on a trip to almost any part of the country for a cost for the entire party of from three to five cents a mile for the actual consumption of gasoline, tires, and oil. Or, if we consider the initial cost of the car, its depreciation, repairs, overhauling, insurance, license fees, and other similar expenses, we shall



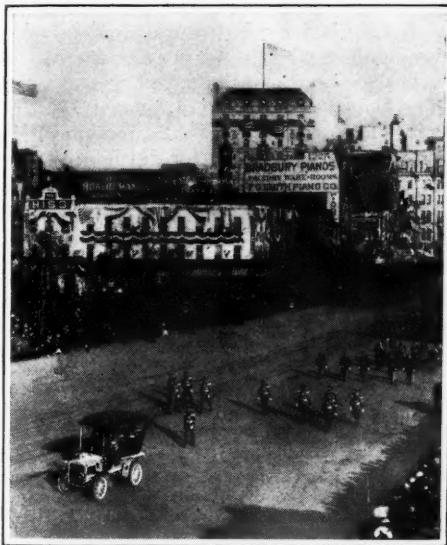
A CADILLAC CAR OF TWENTY YEARS AGO

(Showing the influence of carriage builders on early body designs)

have a total cost of from ten to twenty cents per mile for the party of five or seven—considerably cheaper, even, than day-coach seats on a railroad train.

As an Economic Element

But if we get away from the personal aspect of what the automobile has done for us individually, and note its effect on industrial conditions throughout the country as a whole, we will be even more amazed at what a production of between three and four million cars a year, and the annual use of seventeen million, mean to this country—



THE ONLY AUTOMOBILE IN THE ROOSEVELT INAUGURATION PARADE

(In 1904 this White steamer formed part of the equipment of the Twenty-third Regiment of the New York National Guard)

and practically this entire development, be it remembered, is a growth of the last twenty-five years. For the adoption of the automobile as a transportation medium to such a tremendous extent makes necessary the full-time work of somewhat over three million employees, who obtain their living and support their families entirely from this "infant industry." The large majority of these are employed directly in the factories producing the completed automobiles and their essential parts, but a few hundred thousand are in the steel mills, the plate-glass factories and similar plants where some of the raw products which form a vital part of the modern motor-car are produced.



MR. HENRY FORD, IN HIS FIRST CAR

(Mr. Ford was a machinist, in Detroit, when he experimented with a motor-driven vehicle; and in 1903 he organized the Ford Motor Company)

Consumption of Metal, Glass, and Rubber

Possibly the all-pervading influence of the automobile can be better realized when it is understood that this industry alone consumes 11 per cent. of all of the finished iron and steel used in this country, and this is including the tremendous masses required for bridges, gigantic buildings, and other structural steel purposes. Yes, the automobile industry uses more than three million tons of high-grade iron and steel annually.



ALL SET FOR A RIDE

(The motorist's equipment formerly was not complete without duster, gloves, and special headgear)



BEFORE THE ERA OF HARD-SURFACED ROADS

But the modern automobile is also more than a mass of metal. We might think that the tremendous building operations throughout the country with their numberless windows from the ground-floor display rooms to the high-priced and airy top-floor apartments might require the entire plate-glass production of this country; but such is far from being the case, for the windshields of all automobiles and the movable windows of the closed type consume just 2 per cent. more than one-half of the entire plate-glass production, an amount sufficient to cover somewhat over twelve hundred acres.

Of course it might be expected that rubber would contribute the lion's share of its output to the automobile industry and therefore we shall probably accept as a matter of fact that of the one-third of a million tons of crude rubber used in this country, 80 per cent. is required for tires.

A Glutton for Gasoline

The automobile will probably make necessary the development of a new form of liquid measure, for the gallon is too small to enable us to confine ourselves to millions or hundreds of millions when we are talking about the fuel consumption of our automobiles. However, this amounted last year to six and one-quarter *billion* gallons; and inasmuch as even the modern automobile engine is rather a temperamental affair and requires pampering to the extent of accepting the highest grades of fuel, represented by about 20 per cent. of the constituents of average petroleum, we see that the total amount of crude oil required to supply these six billion gallons was at least five times that amount.

But whenever an automobile starts, it must be stopped sooner or later; therefore, the annual "stopping equipment" of our motor-cars runs into surprising figures. Sixty-two million feet of asbestos brake lining were required last year. This amounts to about twelve thousand miles, or half-way around the surface of the earth.

And as an exclamation point to this array of figures, we might merely mention that last year more than two hundred fully-loaded freight-cars were required to transport iron used for the license plates of our automobiles and trucks!

Future Development

So much for what the automobile has been and is; what it meant to us twenty-five years ago, and what it means to us to-day. The logical question is, can it maintain this pace of growth and in what direction will be its next development—for develop it must. It has changed from a noisy, unreliable, slow-moving mechanical freak to a silent, troubleless, comfortable utility capable of traveling anywhere at any time.

This universal utility has been due primarily to two dominant factors. Mechanical simplicity and reliability were bound to come; but it has taken the mass production of the light-weight, weather-proof, closed body, and the vast increase in hard-surfaced roads to change the automobile from a fair-weather, two-thousand-miles-a-year vehicle to an equipage which travels through rain, snow, mud, and dust for the entire twelve-month, and which will frequently average from ten to twenty thousand miles of service each year. The secret of this is



A BRAKE TEST IN NEW YORK
(To demonstrate that the new vehicle was not dangerous)

found in the fact that, whereas ten years ago only $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the entire year's production was of the closed type, to-day well over 50 per cent. of all cars produced are of the sedan, coupé, or limousine models. But although we have nearly 500,000 miles of hard-surfaced highways in this country, and are adding to this at the rate of about fifty thousand a year at a total cost of close to one billion dollars annually, nevertheless there still remains over two and one-quarter million miles of unimproved highways in the United States comparable to the road conditions found twenty-five, fifty, and, in some instances, even one hundred years ago.

Therefore, as the mileage of improved roads increases, the utility of the automobile will increase; as its utility and usefulness increase, so will the number in use become greater, and this will call for added simplicity and refinement. Riding comfort has been vastly improved, but we shall go farther; reliability and freedom from breakdowns seem at present to have reached the ultimate, but the car of the future will give the service station less to do, and the owner more service with fewer repairs, less frequent carbon removal and valve grinding, and less disagreeable cleaning, greasing, and periodic adjustment. We shall be able to use

cheaper fuel more effectively, and be able to obtain a greater proportion of its essential power through less heat losses, friction, and other dissipation of energy.

The one big problem which confronts us as a nation of automobile-users, however, is that this very growth of automobile utility is defeating its own purposes by consuming all of the available traffic media and parking spaces in our cities and surrounding territories. City-planning, in so far as the handling of moving and stationary traffic is concerned, has not kept pace with engineering progress as exemplified by the automobile, and the time is already upon us when the most serious aspect of automobile sales resistance is not the car's lack of reliability, its expense, its restricted utility, or the trouble entailed upon its operation, but rather the absolute lack of space to enable it to serve its highest utility as a transportation medium. Therefore, the car of the future may be provided with some form of rack or stand by means of which the rear wheels may be lifted from the ground, and the owner may take a Sunday-afternoon trip in his own back-yard with all of the sounds and sensations of doing sixty miles an hour, taking nobody's dust, and having no fear of the ever-present motor cop.



© Ewing Galloway, N. Y.

NOT A HORSE IN SIGHT

(The scene is on Fifth Avenue, in New York, but it can be duplicated in other cities)

THE ANTHRACITE STRIKE AND THE CONSUMER

BY GEORGE H. CUSHING

THE anthracite miners were, on September 1, called out on their seventh strike in the last twenty-five years. A statute of Pennsylvania provides that no man shall work as an anthracite miner unless he holds a certificate of competency, and that, to obtain a certificate, he must have served an apprenticeship of two years under a practical miner. All of those who now hold such certificates and all of their apprentices are involved in this strike. For this reason, anthracite production must stop until peace is restored.

How Labor's Demands Have Been Met

While the labor relations in the coal fields have been peculiarly turbulent for thirty years, no other strike of the miners has been so difficult to understand; it is fairly mystifying when the full record is set down.

First: When the affairs of the coal industry, during the World War, were in the hands of the U. S. Fuel Administration, a series of revisions of the wage scale adjusted it to the apparent satisfaction of the miners. At least, they worked under that scale until October, 1919, when they, voluntarily, renewed it until April 1, 1920.

Second: President Wilson's Anthracite Commission found in favor of the miners in the spring of 1920 when they obtained a more favorable scale under which they worked until April 1, 1922.

Third: At the end of a five-and-a-half-months' strike in 1922, the miners agreed to continue under the 1920 scale for one year or until the U. S. Coal Commission, created by the Congress for that purpose, could inquire into the facts of the coal industry.

Fourth: In the anthracite wage conference of 1923—following the publication of the Coal Commission's report—the miners were granted a further wage increase of 10 per cent.

Fifth: Following this increase, the Attorneys-General of nine States—they

realized that the scale contract could not be amended—acting in the name of the consumers, asked the Federal Courts to declare unconstitutional the production tax assessed by the State of Pennsylvania.

Sixth: The Interstate Commerce Commission, acting on the appeal of public officials, investigated the railroad rates on anthracite in the hope that the delivered price of that coal might be modified by a rate reduction.

Seventh: In some New England cities 15 per cent. and in others 20 per cent. of the normal sale of anthracite has been supplanted by the use of oil and artificial gas as fuel.

Issues in the Present Strike

It seems from this record that the demands of the miners were consistently granted and that relief for the consumers was patiently sought. Until the anthracite miners assembled in their annual convention at Scranton in June, the public was not aware that the miners had any complaint about either their wages or their working conditions. For these various reasons, the public and the operators were unprepared for the new demands, presented to the joint conference at Atlantic City, for: a 10 per cent. increase to the contract miners; \$1 per day for the day workers; and the "check-off."

The demand for the "check-off"—which means the deduction, by the operators of the union dues from the pay envelope of each miner—was first made almost twenty-five years ago, and has been renewed at each subsequent wage conference. It is by no means a new question, and there is no more reason for a strike over it at this time than at any time in the past. That leaves for consideration only the matter of a wage increase.

Although the officials of the union have made many public statements, none of them



MINING COAL WITH MODERN MACHINERY IN THE PENNSYLVANIA ANTHRACITE DISTRICT, NEAR SCRANTON

has been devoted to an effort to justify this increase either by showing that anthracite wages are out of line with those paid to workers in other industries, or with those paid to miners in other portions of the coal field. And, although the operators have made many public statements, none of these has made any reference to a demand that the wages should be decreased. Indeed, the operators have confined themselves to the statement that they will not consent to "any condition which will increase the cost of producing anthracite."¹ This is a negative statement, purely, which might be construed to mean that the operators would not veto a wage increase if the miners could prove that it could be granted and still the cost of producing anthracite be not increased.

Finally, between the adjournment of the wage conference and the actual calling of the strike, the Governors of the New England States held a conference to decide what might be done to protect the coal supply of their people. They decided to recommend that the State institutions and the people, as a permanent policy, turn to the use of substitutes; if coal were to be used, they favored the low volatile, or "smokeless" coal, produced by non-union labor. The week previously, the Interstate Commerce Commission had named rates on

that low volatile coal into the anthracite-consuming territory. Under such conditions, a strike for higher wages calls for the strongest justification of the wages demanded.

The Situation in the Bituminous Field

The very assembling of the facts in this order gives some color to the statement, made by the intimates of Mr. John L. Lewis, that his main purpose is to employ the anthracite strike to emphasize the conditions in the bituminous field and to call for their correction.

That is, in January of last year, the union negotiated an agreement, at Jacksonville, Florida, with the bituminous operators of the Central Competitive Field—Western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. This provided for the continuance of the war wage scale until April, 1927. This agreement was no sooner signed than the sale of union-mined coal began to dwindle, while the sale of non-union coal increased.

One fact measures, concretely, the effect of this transfer of business. Before that time, the normal production of bituminous coal in Pennsylvania had been about 175 million tons per year; that of West Virginia had been about 90 million tons. By August of this year, Pennsylvania's production had

so fallen that it was on the basis of about 125 million tons; that of West Virginia had risen to about 150 million tons. When their business was going, thus freely, to the non-union field, many of the union operators practically abandoned their properties. The union miners, who were not welcome in the non-union field, took over these mines and operated them on a coöperative plan. Other miners left the union and volunteered to work on the non-union scale. It is this situation which seems to press upon Mr. Lewis for solution.

While the wage battle—regardless of its cause—is being fought out, the people who have relied upon anthracite are presented with a fuel problem. Their concern is as to whether a sufficient supply of comparable fuels—those which fit into existing household equipment—is available.

The Anthracite Supply

Roughly, the annual production of the prepared sizes of anthracite—pea coal and larger—averages close to 60 million tons. This is produced in fifty-two weeks; it is consumed in about forty weeks. Therefore, roughly, the consumption of anthracite for house-heating is one and one-half million tons per week. If this strike should continue until April 1, the public would have to find a thirty weeks' supply of coal, or about 50 million tons. The cold period accounts for the increase.

Those fuels which are true substitutes for anthracite command, regularly, a steady sale. Therefore, it is necessary to locate surplus supplies—quantities which have not been committed to other patrons. Because a careful canvass has been made of this subject, it is possible to make the following approximate statement of the amounts that will be available, before April to offset the indicated shortage of 50 million tons of anthracite:

Anthracite prepared sizes stored in the bins of householders and retailers and in mine stock piles	20,000,000 tons
Surplus low volatile or "smokeless"	10,000,000 tons
Fuel oil in storage at Atlantic seaboard ports—287 million gallons—translated into anthracite terms	1,250,000 tons
Surplus fuel oil production (supra)	1,750,000 tons
Domestic coke	7,000,000 tons
Artificial gas—translated into anthracite terms	7,000,000 tons
Welsh and Virginia anthracite	1,000,000 tons
Total, all fuels	48,000,000 tons

The figures seem to indicate a maximum shortage—of anthracite or comparable fuels—of only about 2,000,000 tons. This, in fact, will be so modified there need be no shortage at all. The total shortage of the prepared sizes and comparable fuels can be made up by the use of the steam or smaller sizes, for the use of which several furnaces have been developed. Also, west of Buffalo, the people readily switch even to high volatile coal.

In the foregoing summary, the increased production of artificial gas has been studiously underestimated, to avoid any semblance of prophecy. As a matter of fact, the gas companies have developed a gas-burning furnace and have named a special price on gas when used for heating purposes. One noteworthy outturn of this strike may easily be a revolutionary increase in the use of artificial gas.

Substitutes for Anthracite

Since many will be likely, this winter, to use other than anthracite, these facts about the use of the other coals may prove serviceable. In any furnace, "smokeless" coal will burn practically the same as anthracite. However, when a quick, hot fire is desired, it is advisable to break, with a poker, the crust which forms over the burning coal. But "smokeless" is not suitable for use in any stove having a magazine or hopper feed. It is a coking coal, which means that it swells under heat and will jam in a container the outlet of which is smaller than the inlet.

"Gashouse" coke is an excellent fuel. But it is quite porous and, unless burned under a checked draft, will quickly burn itself out. This coke smothered by any ordinary slack coal will be found to yield an excellent result.

"By-product coke" is less porous than gashouse, but it, too, must be burned under a checked draft. An ideal mixture is about half and half by-product coke and "smokeless" mine-run coal.

Welsh anthracite comes with a large percentage of "fines." This is not a demerit as the fine coal will burn readily. Virginia anthracite—if and when properly cleaned at the mine—is an excellent fuel which is on the borderline between anthracite and by-product coke.

Oil and gas, of course, require special equipment concerning which no recommendation will be ventured.

A FOREST-WISE NATION

BY CHARLES LATHROP PACK

(President, American Tree Association)

TIME, opportunity and training have given to few of us the privilege of becoming forest-wise; of intimately knowing the forest and its wonders. Nevertheless, we are fast becoming a forest-wise nation in a larger and more general sense. To turn the phrase about, we are "getting wise" to the forest; to what it means in our lives; to what should and must be done.

Next year there occurs a semi-centennial which should not pass by without notice. It will mark the fiftieth anniversary of our first uncertain steps as a nation along the path of forestry progress. In 1876 Congress munificently appropriated \$2000 to be expended in retaining a competent man to investigate the timber conditions of the United States. Dr. Franklin B. Hough was that pioneer.

Fifty years ago we were a people confident that we had enough timber in our forests to last forever. Were there not vast unexplored stretches of it? So the first faint murmurings urging thought of the timber of the future bore fruit in a two-thousand-dollar dole out of the public funds. For some years the money made available remained in the category of doles. The accomplishment was, necessarily, in proportion. Some men of vision gave of themselves to what they recognized as a "cause," but it was only in tiny trickles that the word reached the people. It caught few ears.

It is during the first quarter of this century that we have awakened to our prodigality. In reality it is during the last few years only that we have become truly forest-wise as a people, in the rank and file.

This point has not been reached by any natural process of evolution in public thought. Instead it has been that first seedling of fifty years ago, nurtured and protected in its growth by one thing—education. It is a reflection of a gradual recognition on the part of our magazines and newspapers of the extreme importance of the issue.



SEED THAT WILL SOME DAY BECOME A FOREST

(The picture shows James E. Chandler, Past Imperial Potentate of the Shriners, planting slash pine seed that will later go into a Boy Scout demonstration field near Macon, Ga.)

Candidates for public office make speeches to audiences gathered in halls. They are really talking for the public prints. All except the most eminent among them, who have access to and funds for the radio, must depend upon the editors of the country to educate the public on their qualifications for public office.

For a long time those who saw the future forestry problem as it inevitably was going to be, talked to audiences in halls—usually small audiences. They spoke in the hope that their words would reach out and educate. They generally looked in vain in the press for an echo of what they had said. This has changed. To-day there are few editors who do not have a sound idea and active appreciation of the forestry issue. Their news and editorial columns reflect this. The public is then educated.

What is the result? A Congress alive to an active expression of public sentiment

has recently established the sound fundamentals of a forest policy for the United States in the McNary-Clarke Forestry Act. We have a fine organization in charge of our 156,000,000 acres of National Forest. It is supported by considerable if not always adequate appropriations. We have a national legislature educated to the forestry issue; forest-wise in its knowledge that we are using timber four times faster than we are growing it, burning thousands of acres a year and facing directly the need of practising economy with this natural resource essential to our economic and social soundness and progress.

State Interests in Forestry

This from the national point of view. We are a country of forty-eight States, however, each one with its own forestry issues. Reflecting our growth of forest wisdom, forestry questions have been before virtually every one of the State Legislatures during the past year or two. In some States a sound forest structure had already been built and the legislative work was that of adding new ells and porches. In others activity had lapsed and the structure stood vacant, now to find a new tenant. In still other States the cellars of the building have been dug. There are a few more that have not progressed as yet beyond the point of consulting with the architect about the possibilities of building.



WHAT THE FARMER CAN DO
(This is a wind-break in Minnesota)

From a careful survey of progress in the States one or two general conclusions are evident. Except in a handful of States where forest growth is negligible or, as in Arizona, largely in National Forest ownership, there exists an active public sentiment and knowledge of forestry. This is reflected in the legislative bodies and, combined with the provisions of the McNary-Clarke Act for coöperation between Federal and State governments, has smoothed the way of much forestry legislation. Opposed to this there is a general spirit of economy and retrenchment, but, even so, funds to carry out the forestry work have not been seriously restricted.

To touch briefly on recent developments in the States is to reveal certain interesting things that illustrate local and sectional problems and how they are being met.

New England's Activities

In New England the paramount problem is one of reforestation. Protection of existing forests is important, particularly in Maine, but a past history marked by prodigal use of timber has left empty spaces to fill. These States have considerable forestry departments, except little Rhode Island. They are active and accomplishing much, enjoying a fair degree of generosity on the part of the legislatures.

Maine recently has confined herself to fire protective work. In New Hampshire the last legislature appropriated \$200,000 toward the purchase of the glorious Franconia Notch in the White Mountains to preserve it from commercial lumbering. The forest-fire laws have been strengthened, the forest-land-tax-exemption law improved, and added appropriations made for blister-rust control and State nursery work. Vermont, one of the States where the forestry structure was temporarily vacant, has rejuvenated its forestry department, authorized creation of State forest reserves, and facilitated the acquisition of National Forests within her borders.

Long in the group of leaders in State forestry work, Massachusetts has a well-defined program requiring little change but adequate annual appropriations. A new forest-fire code failed of approval on account of the economy program in the recent legislature and the gypsy-moth control funds suffered a severe cut. Rhode Island has recently strengthened her forest-fire laws. Connecticut has done likewise, as

well as appropriated money for a State nursery, and is planning to embark on a program of State forest acquisition.

There is one idea that has gained notable ground in New England, and is gaining in other Eastern States. That is the town forest idea, putting into use lands fitted only for forest production as local sources of timber supply, recreational areas and wild-life refuges.

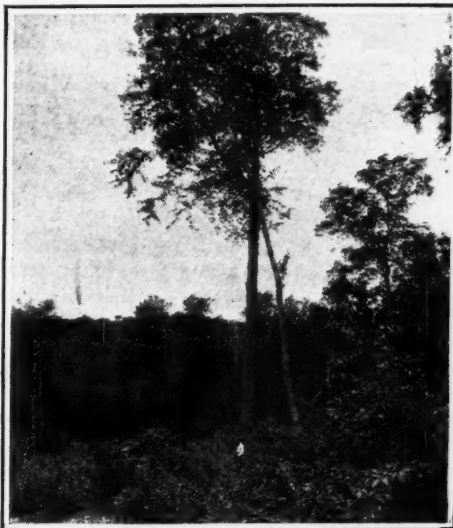
Other Eastern States

Beyond the usual fire protective and general forestry work in New York, that State has continued to further its active work of nursery stock distribution for reforestation. The legislature set aside \$120,000 this year for this work, which has taken on large proportions and is bringing notable results. In New Jersey the central aim is to secure adequate funds for extending the State Forests to 200,000 acres over a period of ten years. Sufficient appropriations have been made to carry on the work of the forestry department and fire protection.

Pennsylvania, long a forest-wise State, has a successful forestry department, and the 1925 legislature passed several amendments strengthening existing laws. The largest issue in this State is the \$25,000,000 loan act for the acquisition of State Forests which will be voted on by the people in 1928. Maryland has recently improved its fire laws and is carrying on its work under an active forestry department. Delaware's last legislature created a bi-partisan commission of four to study the question on preserving and conserving the State's forest areas, thereby digging the cellar of the forestry structure.

Progress in the South

In the Southern States is to be found a varying forest condition. Some have considerable remaining forests and have taken steps to solve their problems; others are lethargic, and others still need education. North Carolina is awake and working along progressive lines. Virginia is following the same course, emphasizing fire protection. West Virginia is extending its State Forests and carrying on active fire-protection work, but forestry is not yet recognized as a distinct department. South Carolina has on its way to enactment a law creating a forestry commission, establishing a State forester and providing for tax adjustment.



SUGAR MAPLE IN THE ADIRONDACKS

(New York State owns two million acres of forest land in the famous Adirondack and Catskill Mountain regions)

Alabama recently found that appropriations were the remedy for the financial anemia under which its ineffective forestry commission of 1907 was borne down, and created a new commission with funds for a State Forester and real work. This is now going forward successfully. Next door, in Georgia, a gradually growing sentiment is achieving the same end. Florida is still consulting the architect about building a forestry building. Louisiana boasts a strong commission and a forest taxation law, and the recent legislature strengthened its law by minor amendments.

For some time Kentucky lingered in the doldrums with a forestry law providing a State department on its books but no money. The legislature has now remedied this and work has recommenced. Tennessee is carrying on with its present department, emphasizing educational work particularly essential in that State.

Problems of the Middle West

After the forest resources of New England had been cut to the quick, the North Central States were the center of cutting activity. They are now in the situation of our Northeastern States, with reforestation the outstanding need. Ohio has an active forestry department and has just enacted a tax-exemption law to encourage growing of timber. Indiana already has such a law

and the forestry department is working for extension of the State Forests, a law having been passed providing for segregation of a fund for this purpose. In Illinois the same aim is being actively fostered, the chief obstacle to forestry progress being lack of funds. Iowa has taken some forward steps in strengthening its forestry department.

Going south we find Missouri, Arkansas and Mississippi, three States emphatically needing forestry action. Missouri has created a forestry department, but its effectiveness will be hampered until appropriations are available to permit it to work. This year Arkansas tentatively stuck its toe into the lake of forestry progress, but refused to go into the water. An active public sentiment failed to carry over a bill that received Senate approval but failed in the House. It would have created a forestry department. Mississippi received some inspiration from the McNary-Clarke Act and passed a tax-adjustment law.

Kansas is carrying on work encouraging farm forestry. Texas is finding this field of great value, also, and appropriations for this activity have been increased. The legislature has just set aside a new State Forest. In Colorado a large percentage of forest and potential forest land is in National Forest ownership and the forestry-work of the State is largely educational and farm extension in character. Arizona finds the burden of forestry action lifted from its shoulders by a preponderance of National Forests. Wyoming and Utah, as well as the two Dakotas, to the north, have few forestry responsibilities.

In the Lake States an active forestry sentiment is finding expression. Michigan has passed a tax law providing for the classification of forest lands to encourage growing. Minnesota has reorganized its forestry department, is carrying on an active forest-fire-protection work and will submit a constitutional amendment for tax revision on forest lands to the people in 1926. In Wisconsin there have been no new developments and a revivifying of public sentiment is needed and in process. The establishment of an experiment station of the United States Forest Service for the Lake States has served to aid matters in this section.

Going west we find Montana and Idaho alive to the situation. They boast con-

siderable forest areas and protection against fire is important. A large program of State Forest extension is under way in the former State. The legislature of Idaho has created the office of State Forester and has passed an effective forest-fire protection code that contemplates coöperation between the State and timberland owners in combating the terrific forest fires that have now and again swept the timbered sections of the State.

The Pacific Slope

In the Pacific Coast States, where is found our last great stand of timber, there are two major issues—protection of existing forests from fire and encouragement of the reforestation of cutover lands by tax adjustments. All three States have fairly effective forest-fire codes. This year a bill was passed by the Washington Legislature that sought more teeth for the code, but was vetoed by the Governor on the ground that the existing law sufficed. Oregon strengthened its forest-fire laws, however, as did California, where State Forest extension is likewise an active issue.

Meeting the problem of adjusting taxation of cutover lands to encourage planting has been more difficult in the coast States. Each has a constitution providing equality of taxation. Amendment is the only course. Washington is studying out the best method of approach; Oregon had passed such a law but encountered gubernatorial rebuff on grounds of constitutionality; California has provided for the amendment of its constitution by a resolution which will be submitted to the people in November of next year.

Thus we have the several States attacking their varied problems. They are being urged on and aided by the federal government. Fundamentally, however, they are progressing in proportion to the articulate public sentiment within their borders. Some need more education before real achievement will come. Nevertheless those who have espoused the forestry cause, the editors of the nation, the enlightened timberland owners and the many who early understood and talked the story of forestry, have real reason to be pleased at the progress made in the half-century since the declaration of economic independence in that two-thousand-dollar appropriation by Congress in 1876.



A FIELD OF AMERICAN NARCISSUS AT BELLINGHAM, WASH.

(Typical of extensive domestic culture, in anticipation of the quarantine on January 1, 1926)

FOREIGN PLANT PESTS

A NARCISSUS EMBARGO FOLLOWS SUCCESS WITH OUR QUARANTINE POLICY

BY OLIVER PECK NEWMAN

UNCLE SAM is about to make another desperate effort to curb the voracious appetite of his insect boarders from foreign lands, who eat up a thousand million dollars worth of home-grown food every year. Sneaking into an originally virgin country in plants, bulbs and soil, these little foreigners have everybody in America who raises fruit and vegetables working two hours a day to feed them!

The latest measure of defense is directed against the dainty, sweet-scented, delicately beautiful narcissus, the pride and joy of many a garden and the inspiration of poets and songsters. Although purity and innocence seem to radiate from the soft petals of this princess of floriculture she is a base deceiver. At her roots lie evil. In the bulb of the narcissus, as imported chiefly from Holland and France, there lie snugly sleeping microscopic germs that eventually hatch out into insects which devour clover, alfalfa and onions by the acre.

Wherefore, the long arm of Uncle Sam has reached out, in an effort to save millions to agriculture, and on January, 1, 1926, will shut the gate to narcissus bulbs, which have hitherto been imported in huge quanti-

ties without restriction. Included in the group are daffodils, jonquils, paperwhites, and so forth. After this year the bulbs of such plants cannot be imported indiscriminately for commercial purposes, such as forced growing of blooming plants for the florist trade. Ample importation for development of home-grown narcissus will, however, be permitted. Under supervision of the Department of Agriculture, narcissus bulbs may still be brought in for planting stock, for introduction of new species and for scientific purposes. Under these provisions it is believed that the trade will soon be amply supplied with American-grown bulbs free from infestation.

In the meantime, tulips, hyacinths, lilies, crocuses and lilies of the valley will be as plentiful as ever, in spite of rumors to the contrary.

"There seems to be widespread belief," says Dr. C. L. Marlatt, chairman of the Federal Horticultural Board, "that the Department will exclude all bulbs after this year. The Department has been advised from many sources that statements are being made to bulb purchasers by dealers and others that, after this year, no

foreign bulbs will be permitted entry into the United States. The fact is the Department has never placed any limitation on the entry of tulips, hyacinths, lilies, crocuses or lilies of the valley and these will remain, as in the past, open to unrestricted entry."

Destruction Concealed in the Bulb

Only the narcissus bulb has been black-listed and this only after a long trial in which a very bad record was uncovered. It was originally supposed that bulbs were practically as free from infestation as seeds, but inspection over a period of years has exploded this theory. The tiny egg of future plant, fruit or vegetable pests often lives in the bulb. It lies dormant until the bulb develops into a daffodil or jonquil, and then it hies away by the thousand, to settle in a field of clover, alfalfa or onions, where it does immeasurable damage.

"Of all bulbs entering the United States," says Dr. Marlatt, "the narcissus is the worst offender."

Practically every shipment of narcissus bulbs from Holland contains the germ of



THE NARCISSUS BULB FLY

(Microscopic germs of three pests are found in narcissus bulbs. They are the large bulb fly, the small bulb fly, and the eelworm. Besides doing great damage to bulbs, the flies also devour whole crops of onions. The eelworm's food affinity is clover or alfalfa. It migrates from the narcissus at maturity and damages or destroys any fields of alfalfa or clover in its vicinity. It already threatens the whole alfalfa crop of the Northwest)

either the "bulb fly" or the "eelworm." Frequently 10 or 12 per cent. of the shipment is infested. From fifty to seventy-five maggots are sometimes found in a single bulb. In Europe the bulb fly has not only taken heavy toll of the bulb industry, but has inflicted enormous damage on onions. In some sections entire crops have been destroyed. Of even greater menace is the eelworm, which attacks alfalfa, clover, onions, rye, oats and potatoes. Across the Atlantic the damage to these crops from this one pest is incalculable. The South African alfalfa fields, infested from bulb importation, must now be replanted every four or five years and their yield has been materially reduced.

Already the eelworm and bulb fly have a foothold in the United States, through importation of narcissus bulbs. Clover in the Northwest States has been attacked and the pests are on the increase to such an extent that the entire crop in that section may be wiped out. The bulb industry in California (a rapidly growing and comparatively new undertaking) is also threatened. Dr. D. C. Milbrath, pathologist of the California Department of Agriculture, has advised the National Department that "if the eelworm is not checked the bulb industry will be ruined."

Our Plant Quarantine

The approaching narcissus embargo is really one detail of Uncle Sam's general plant quarantine policy, directed by his Department of Agriculture and founded on the plant quarantine act of 1912. The purpose of the policy, briefly, is to protect American agriculture from insect pests imported from foreign countries in plants, bulbs, soil, cuttings, shoots, trees, shrubs, etc. In the beginning efforts were made to head off the bugs in the countries of their origin. Inspection, disinfection and certification of shipments were required for seven years but the plan failed. The pests got by—and were not discovered until too late. Much of the damage can never be undone but will continue with greater and greater loss every year. The total is now estimated at a billion dollars, annually.

Deadly Imports from Japan

One price already collected by the pests is the total disappearance of the beautiful American chestnut tree from the Atlantic seaboard. The chestnut-bark disease might

have been excluded if the present quarantine policies had been in force fifteen years ago, when the blight is believed to have been brought in with a shipment of Japanese trees imported to complete a collection of chestnuts of the world.

At about the same time the fancy of a number of cities was caught by the dainty blossoms of the glorious Japanese cherry-trees, which were imported in large numbers for park driveways. As a result the now well-known, pernicious Oriental fruit worm is a fixture in the United States, especially in the South and Middle West. It attacks peaches, plums, pears and apples with deadly results. No preventive has been found, and it now threatens losses mounting into millions every year.

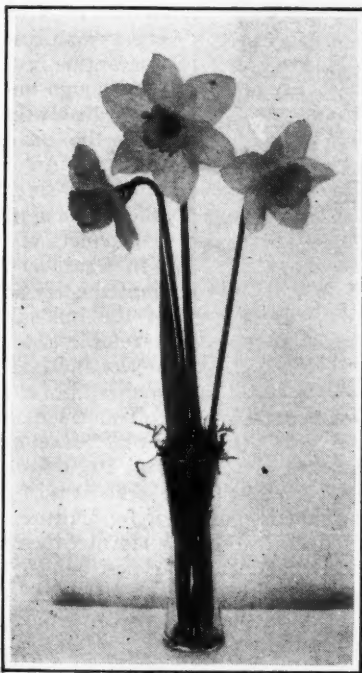
Another big toll collector that could easily have been kept at home is the citrus canker. Originally imported in ornamental hedges, it has attacked the orange, grapefruit and lemon industry of Florida and the other Gulf States with disastrous results. Whole groves have been burned to the ground by their owners to eradicate the pest, while Federal and State governments have spent millions combating it with little success.

One of the most serious of our plant enemies is the Japanese beetle, brought into the United States about ten years ago with importations of Japanese iris plants, which could easily have been produced in this country without any danger of introducing a new pest. The beetle first appeared in Burlington County, New Jersey, in 1916, but now covers more than 2,000 square miles of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. No way to eliminate it has been discovered, although New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and the Federal Government are vigorously pursuing a coöperative project for this purpose. The Japanese beetle destroys grapes and blackberries, such fruit trees as apple and sweet cherry, orna-

mental shrubs, roses, garden flowers of all kinds, clover blossoms, soybeans, corn and the leaves of such trees as the linden, birch, oak, elm, horse chestnut and willow.

Devastations of the Corn Borer

One of the best-known, hungriest and most devastating pests is the European corn borer, a worm that injures to the extent of millions and frequently destroys corn, barley, celery, cotton, millet, potatoes, peppers, rhubarb, sorghum, buckwheat, oats, okra, parsnips, spinach, clover, timothy, tobacco, tomatoes and a dozen other food products or plants. Of none of these, however, does it take such heavy toll as of corn. Like many of the other insect enemies it could easily have been kept out of the country. It was brought in about fifteen years ago in broom corn, imported by manufacturers of brooms, who had no idea what disastrous results would follow. The corn borer has appeared in New England, Eastern New York, and an area about Lake Erie. The national and state departments, the Canadian department and scores of city governments are fighting the plague constantly and vigorously, but the bug is getting all the best of it so far.



THE NARCISSUS

As a result of such events, which are merely typical of scores of others, the Department of Agriculture has adopted heroic measures, which have now been in operation about five years—a length of time sufficient to give some indication of the value of the policy.

"Seven years of experience with inspection and certification, from 1912 to 1919," says Dr. Marlatt, "convinced us that imported nursery stock and other plants, seeds and bulbs were the source of the introduction of 90 per cent. of the insect pests and plant diseases, numbering more than 100 varieties, that have come to us from other countries."



GOLDEN-BANTAM CORN INFESTED WITH THE EUROPEAN BORER

As a consequence a plant-quarantine policy was adopted in 1919, shutting out importation of the guilty products except under rigid supervision of the Department.

"The only possible means of effectively lessening the introduction of new plant enemies," says Dr. Marlatt, "is the policy of exclusion of all plants not absolutely essential to the agricultural and forestry needs of the United States. Carrying out this policy our quarantine restricts the entry of most nursery stock and other ornamentals to certain purposes which are believed to be necessary to the development of American horticulture. Unlimited entry is permitted, however, of certain classes of plants which it is believed cannot be adequately produced in the United States and which, it has been found, carry the least risk. Provision is also made for the entry of any other plant whatsoever for which a reasonable need can be shown."

Under the quarantine regulations all plants subject to restriction go either to Washington or to San Francisco, where they are inspected and treated by experts before

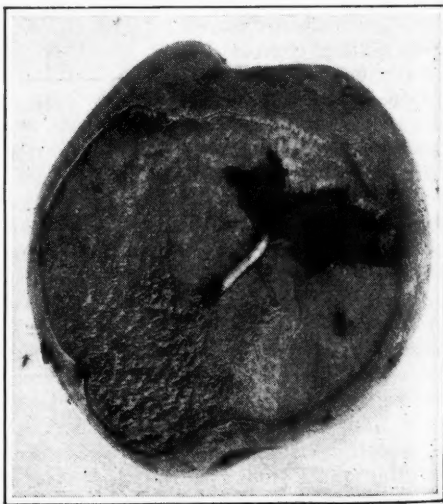
being delivered to the persons for whom they were brought in. During the five-year period, 1919-1924, a total importation of 65,000,000 restricted plants was authorized and 40,000,000 were actually imported. These formed the basis of 2,000 projects in forty-four States for the propagation of plants formerly purchased abroad. The importations included 17,000 different species; there were 2,000 roses, 1,000 gladioli, 1,700 dahlias and 1,200 peonies.

Thousands and tens of thousands of insect pests were intercepted, but nowhere in the country has a serious, new plant enemy or plant disease appeared since the quarantine became effective.

Although not intended to act as a tariff wall which would shut out foreign competition, the quarantine has caused a great boom in American production of plants, bulbs and seeds, all of which are free from infestation of new insect pests.

Products upon which there is no restriction whatever and which are open to unlimited entry include from 80 to 90 per cent. of the bulbs hitherto imported, all field, vegetable and flower seeds, fruit and rose stocks, and all seeds of forest and fruit trees and of ornamental plants and shrubs.

The American nurseryman is found to be rapidly developing the habit of growing his own stock from seeds or propagating from stocks imported through the Department of Agriculture. These methods practically guarantee healthy plants and elimination of pest danger.



THE ORIENTAL FRUIT WORM IN A PEACH

THE RUSSIAN PEASANT

AFTER EIGHT YEARS OF BOLSHEVISM

BY WILLIAM HENRY CHAMBERLIN

AFTER the collapse of Baron Wrangel, the last of the Russian "White" leaders, in November, 1920, the peasants, freed from the fear of losing their land, began to stiffen in their opposition to the Communist policy of requisitioning their surplus grain.

The western Ukraine was a chronic hotbed of peasant revolt, and in the early spring of 1921 serious uprisings took place in Siberia and in the Province of Tambov. At the same time a mutiny broke out among the sailors stationed at the important naval base of Kronstadt, near Leningrad; and this mutiny was ascribed to the influence of young Ukrainian peasants who had been mobilized for service in the navy. Furthermore, under the influence of the requisitions, the amount of land under cultivation declined alarmingly. The peasants felt that it was useless to raise more than they required for their own needs.

Confronted with the prospect of a hopeless and irreconcilable class war between city and village, Lenin decided that it was time to purchase the acquiescence of the peasantry in the Soviet rule, even at the expense of a considerable sacrifice of rigid Marxian dogma. At his suggestion and under his influence the Tenth Congress of the Russian Communist Party, which met in March, 1921, decided to adopt the New Economic Policy, or Nep, to use its commonly abbreviated title. By substituting a tax on agricultural products for the old system of requisitions and by permitting the peasant to trade freely with the remainder of his produce, the New Economic Policy furnished the basis for a working compromise between the Red and Green currents in the Russian revolutionary movement.

The peasants were permitted to go their way, while the Communist workers in the city went theirs. Given the incentive of private gain the peasants began to increase their production of grain, flax, cotton



UKRAINIAN PEASANT WOMEN IN HOLIDAY COSTUME AT A VILLAGE FAIR

and other crops and thereby made it possible for the socialized industries in the cities, which had almost stopped working by 1921, to experience a certain measure of revival.

The Peasants' Revolution

It has now been almost four years since the Green Revolution (of the Peasants) was liberated from the artificial Communist bonds imposed by the prohibition of free trade. While the agrarian situation in Russia is still not altogether stable, and many institutions which exist at the present time may conceivably be abolished or modified in the future, it is now possible to make out the general outlines of the peasant revolution which changed the Russian countryside quite as much as the Communist revolution changed the cities and towns.

As a result of the New Economic Policy all the forcible leveling work of the Committees of Poverty has been pretty well undone. Go into a typical Russian village to-day and you will find that the peasants may be classified as rich, average and poor, just as before the Revolution. The peasantry as a class has been greatly impoverished by war, famine and social upheaval; but the general impoverishment has not brought with it material equality.

Rich Growing Richer; Poor, Poorer

A definite amount of land, it should be understood, is attached to every village and every peasant's land allotment is determined by the size of his family. In practice, however, this system of theoretical equality is evaded in several ways. The poor peasant (and there are very many such poor peasants in Russia) who has neither working animals nor machinery can do nothing with the land to which he is legally entitled. He must pay a richer peasant to work the land for him, usually giving up about half his crop in payment for this service. Moreover, a certain amount of land, in one form or another, has been retained in the hands of the state; and the more prosperous peasants are able to lease this land, while their poorer neighbors are restricted to their village land allotments.

The agricultural tax weighs more heavily on the poor peasants than on the rich; and sometimes, especially in a year of drought,

the poorer peasants are obliged to sell their working animals to pay the tax, thereby losing all opportunity of carrying on their farms without outside help. The general tendency now in the Russian villages, a tendency which has been noticed by almost all the Soviet students of agrarian problems, is for the prosperous peasants to become more prosperous, while many of the poor peasants sink deeper and deeper into penury, sometimes giving up their land holdings altogether and joining the ranks of the city unemployed and sometimes becoming laborers for their richer neighbors.

Peasants Not Good Coöperators

This development was both inevitable and natural. For the Green Revolution was not socialist, but intensely individualistic. It drew its strength from the peasant's passionate desire to get everything he could for himself. He was a good revolutionist as long as the Bolsheviks told him to drive out the landlords and take the land for himself. But he was inclined to smile and shake his head when the Bolsheviks urged him to organize agricultural communities and work the land on a collectivist basis. And when they urged him to give up his surplus grain for the sake of the city workers and the world revolution he refused and resisted to the best of his ability.

The experience of the last few years has completely dispelled the poetic fancy that the Russian *muzhik* was a sort of natural man, in Rousseau's sense of the term, who only needed to be loosed from the chains of czarism to give his instinct for co-operation with his fellows full play. The unpalatable but unmistakable truth of the matter is that the Russian peasant usually shows far less aptitude for coöperation than farmers in more advanced countries, such as Ireland and Denmark. Ignorant and covetous, he always and often justly suspects that his neighbor is trying to get the better of him; and the simplest experiments in coöperation are apt to be wrecked on this



SUPPLIES OF SEED REACH A DROUGHT-STRICKEN VILLAGE ON THE VOLGA

rock of mutual suspicion and jealousy.

The Soviet propaganda for communal farming has met with little success among the stubbornly individualistic peasants. The government encourages collective farming in every possible way. Peasants who are organized in communes can always expect preferential treatment in receiving credit and agricultural machinery. The taxes levied on the communes are lower than those which the individual peasants must pay, and they often receive the best stretches of land, which were formerly included in the estates of the dispossessed nobles.



THE RISING GENERATION IN AGRICULTURAL RUSSIA

Yet, according to figures published in *Pravda* in December, 1924, the number of peasants engaged in any form of collective farming is 632,790, less than one per cent. of the total peasant population. The number of agricultural communes, where the members work together and share everything in common, declined from 3120 in 1922 to 1804 in 1923 and 1683 in 1924. The number of *artels*, or farming coöperatives, where the members are paid daily wage for their work and buy their food and clothing on an individualist basis, decreased in somewhat smaller proportion from 10,185 in 1922 to 7842 in 1924. On the other hand, the *tovarischestvos*, a still looser form of association permitting greater freedom for the individualist impulses of the members, increased from 2514 in 1922 to 4532 in 1924.

Collectivism Not on the Gain

There seems little reason to believe that collectivist forms of agriculture will gain during the immediate future in Russia. The tendency ever since the introduction of the Nep has been for the number and membership of the collective organizations to decline; and this is especially true of those communal farming organizations which gave least scope to the instinct for private property. Many of those communes and coöperatives which still exist, judging from the writer's personal observations, are based not so much on any genuine impulse for collective labor as on the extreme poverty of the peasants, which almost drives them into collective organizations where they enjoy some privileges and a certain amount of

state aid. People who join communes for this reason are often neither very stable members nor very productive workers.

Taxes Paid in Money Rather than Grain

As for the 99 per cent. and more of the Russian peasants who have remained outside the communes and coöperatives, their pressure on the government in behalf of their own interests as individualist producers, while inarticulate, is often unmistakable. Take, for example, the new method of collecting the agricultural tax. At first this tax was levied in grain and other agricultural products. The peasants resented this very much, and in response to their complaints the government went over to the system of a money tax. The advantage of this change, from the peasant's standpoint, has been quite visible. Because of drought the Russian harvest last season was considerably below average. Had the agricultural tax been collected in grain, the government would have ensured the bread supply for the cities and the army. But, with money taxation, the peasants were able to sell other products, pay their taxes and hold the bulk of their grain for the higher prices of winter and early spring.

Stabilizing the Currency

There are two other outstanding economic concessions which the government has made to the peasants since the introduction of the Nep. One was the stabilization of the currency, which took place in February, 1924. A fluctuating and depreciating

currency is not an advantage from any standpoint; but during the period which followed the introduction of the Nep inflation was to some extent a means of strengthening the state industries at the expense of the peasantry. The industries got most of the benefit of the extra floods of paper rubles which were turned out by the printing-press; the peasant paid most of the cost, as he realized when he compared the purchasing power of the rubles which he received for his grain with the purchasing power of these same rubles a few weeks later, when he tried to buy something. Now the industries cry out against the credit stringency which has been one of the consequences of the currency stabilization; but the government takes the position that the interests of the whole country, and especially of the peasants, come first.

Price-Cutting for the Peasants' Benefit

The other economic concession which the government has made to the peasants is in the matter of cutting prices on the products of the state industries. Obsessed with the idea of restoring their capital at any cost, the state industries in the summer and fall of 1923 were charging fantastic prices for their wares. The result of this mistaken policy was a gigantic peasant boycott of city goods. Confronted with a very serious sales crisis the government made a right-about-face and ordered the industries to cut their prices to the bone. This order has been carried out; and, while the pre-war relation between the prices of farm and manufactured products is far from being reached, the peasants are beginning to buy goods in appreciable quantities again. It has not been altogether easy for the industries to cut down their prices. They are suffering acutely from want of capital, and Dzerzhinsky, President of the Supreme Economic Council, recently pointed out that the profits of the textile industry had fallen from eighty million rubles in 1923 to twenty millions in 1924. But both the price-cutting and the currency stabilization are recognized by the Communists as part of the economic price which they must pay in order to preserve their rule in a predominantly peasant country.

Political Activities

Politically as well as economically the influence of the peasant is making itself felt in the Soviet system. A Soviet election in Russia often is a pretty cut-and-dried

ratification of a list proposed by the Communists. But, according to reports in the Moscow newspapers, a different spirit manifested itself in some of the village Soviet elections last fall. The "kulaks," or richer peasants, who were crushed during the first stages of the Revolution, showed much more self-assertion.

Such Communist leaders as Stalin, the party secretary, and Molotov, one of his chief assistants, have recently made long reports on the new political activity and consciousness of the peasants and on the necessity of finding some means of satisfying them. The ruling Communist party is beginning to devote more attention to the villages. It is attempting to improve the quality of the local Communists, to strengthen the influence of the League of Communist Youth among the young peasants, to improve the educational work among them.

"Green Revolution" in the Villages

Politically these measures, if they are vigorously and efficiently carried out, may strengthen the position of the Communists in the villages. After all, there are no organized opposition parties among the peasants. But economically the great majority of the peasants have shown pretty clearly their determination to do their farming on non-collectivist lines. In speculating about Russia's future lines of political and economic development it is important to remember that, side by side with the dominant Red Revolution in the cities, which is based on a definite economic theory and buttressed by the tremendous organization of the Communist party, there has gone a Green Revolution in the villages.

This revolution has neither leaders, nor organization, nor theories, but it is deeply rooted in the double instinct of the hundred million Russian peasants to get rid of the landed nobility and to keep the land and its products in their own hands for their own individual use. This revolution has already had the most important social and economic consequences. Following closely in the footsteps of the French Revolution it has banished the landed gentry and made the peasant instead of the noble the master of the Russian countryside. It has transferred about 25 per cent. of the arable land in Russia and more than 40 per cent. of the arable land in the Ukraine from a relatively small number of wealthy landowners to the peasants themselves.

PROHIBITION IN AMERICA

BY GIFFORD GORDON

I CAME from Australia for the express purpose of studying the vital question of prohibition. In the course of my study I have travelled 35,000 miles, interviewing judges of various courts, chiefs of police, employers of labor, and labor leaders. I have visited jails, prisons, workhouses, houses of correction, and alcoholic institutions. This has kept me exceedingly busy for the past eighteen months. No prohibition organization was visited, so far as my search for information was concerned. What was wanted by those who sent me, was an unbiased and unprejudiced story. Let me here outline some of my findings.

Prohibition and Alcoholism

All over the country one hears statements that prohibition had created an alcoholic problem; that alcoholic institutions had been obliged to double their capacity in order to cope successfully with the increased number of patients; and that people were being poisoned to death by thousands.

But there is another side to the case. For instance, Dr. Neal of Los Angeles once owned sixty-eight alcoholic institutions, and during the twelve years prior to prohibition 125,000 patients passed through these hospitals. But, according to his own words to me, he has been put out of business after two years of prohibition. In Dwight, Ill., I found that the famous Keeley Cure building—the largest of its kind in the world—was sold to the United States Government two years after prohibition. Dr. Keeley still operates in the same little town, but a brick cottage is large enough for him these days. He once had fifty hospitals; to-day he has but twelve, and they are not doing much business.

The Bellevue Hospital in New York City used to treat more than 15,000 alcoholic patients a year, in pre-prohibition days; last year it treated about 6,000. In New York City, there were 2061 deaths from alcoholic poisoning during the last four "wet" years. For the first four "dry"

years there were 835. These are a few of the facts one may put up to those who are of the opinion that prohibition has in itself created a great alcoholic problem in America.

The Crime "Wave"

Wherever one goes, one hears of the terrible crime wave that prohibition has brought to the country. No one would attempt to deny that there is much crime to-day. But what has prohibition to do with it? When the rank and file of folk talk about crime, they refer always to murder, assault and robbery, and burglary. Therefore, one has a right to ask, what has prohibition to do with such crimes? We can confidently say that one would not hear so much about crime waves were it not for prohibition. The "wets" continually associate the one with the other because it makes splendid propaganda. People hear so much of it that consciously or unconsciously they come to believe that prohibition has increased crime, and they repeat it without thinking it through.

When in Chicago, in 1922, I found that the Bridewell Prison had housed 8,000 fewer prisoners in 1921 than it did in 1917. This is worth some reflection. In spite of the aftermath of the most stupendous war in all history, and also when almost every other person was telling me of a crime wave, we find prisoners reduced by 8,000.

Look at a few figures from New York State and City. The total prison population of the State for the years 1915-1918 was 59,250. For the years 1920-1923, it was 44,977, which is a decrease of more than 14,000. Mr. Enright, Police Commissioner of New York City, recently said, that serious crimes of violence feared by the people—such as murder, felonious assault, assault and robbery, and burglary—had decreased from 13,143 in 1917 to 8,548 in 1924. And Mr. John Anderson Leach, First Deputy Police Commissioner of New York City, said in a recent interview:

"I am going to say from personal observation and experience, that notwithstanding claims to the contrary from whatever source, prohibition in New York has lessened crime and also drunkenness."

Space forbids telling the story of the jails, workhouses, and houses of correction that it was my privilege to visit, which have been wholly closed since prohibition, and for which closing prohibition has been given the credit. Such facts should serve as food for serious thought to those who believe that prohibition increases crime, inasmuch as the figures are taken from the two largest cities in America, New York and Chicago, in both of which we admit it has been very difficult to enforce the law.

Effect on the Use of Drugs

As for the alleged increase in the use of habit-forming drugs, it may suffice to quote from a letter written me by Col. L. G. Nutt, head of the Federal Narcotics Control Board. After quoting a wealth of figures, he went on to say: "Therefore it is our experience and belief that there has been a general decrease in drug addiction in the United States since the enactment of the national prohibition law." This one quotation coming from such an authority is convincing enough to silence all who believe that prohibition has brought to America a great drug problem. There is no need to say more.

Prohibition and Young People

It is my conviction that the most shameful thing the "wets" have attempted thus far is their maligning of the young people of this country. And the cruelest thing supposedly good folk have done to their young people is to accept these "wet" slanders as facts. They have been investigated time and again in high schools, colleges, and universities, and have been proved absolutely false. When Americans and visitors to America believe and repeat such falsehoods, they are casting the worst kind of reflection upon hundreds of thousands of the best type of young manhood and womanhood that this or any other country has ever produced.

Other Results

Had we the space, we could write of the boon prohibition has been to the health of the American people. We could also tell of what it has meant to thousands of young people who were out working for a living before prohibition came to sober up father, and who to-day are in the high schools throughout the land. We could further tell of the impetus prohibition has given to the wholesome enterprise of home-building—how in 1922 there was spent \$112,285,000 every month for the building of new homes. This amount is five times what was spent in 1918. Big real-estate men, wherever we went, gave prohibition much of the credit for this splendid home-building effort.

We could also tell what prohibition has meant to labor and savings-banks. There was not a single labor bank in the country prior to prohibition; now there are twenty-nine, with millions of deposits. In 1917 (the last full "wet" year) there were 11,000,000 savings-bank depositors in America; in 1924 there were 39,000,000. Those best able to judge are unanimous in the opinion that prohibition has made a very great contribution to the present prosperity of the country.

But the most thrilling part of the whole business is the way prohibition is saving the American babies. This is nothing to be wondered at, for many years ago medical science told the world of the appalling effects of alcoholism on babies prior to birth. It told of thousands poisoned to death by alcoholic parents, and of thousands more born with diseased bodies, feeble minds, and bereft of sight because of alcoholic parents. At last America has heard and has heeded the cry of these innocent sufferers, and has placed on them a value far exceeding that derived as revenue from the legalization of the liquor traffic.

It is my strong conviction that the writing of the Eighteenth Amendment into the Constitution of the United States of America has already proved itself the greatest humanitarian piece of legislation in the history of governments.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

A New Air Policy for America

THE loss of the dirigible *Shenandoah*, with fourteen of her officers and crew killed, and the nation's intense interest in the great naval flying boat which was adrift for nine days but finally completed its trip to the Hawaiian Islands, gives special point to the article contributed to the New York *Times* of September 13 by Senator Hiram Bingham, of Connecticut, on a national aviation program. In the World War Senator Bingham had charge of all the United States schools of military aeronautics and served in France. He has just been appointed by President Coolidge as a member of the committee to investigate the aircraft situation.

Although America has a fine record in the air, it is admitted that aviation has not advanced as rapidly in this country as its friends had hoped. Senator Bingham notes that air travel between the principal cities of Europe is now comfortable and regular. He finds that insurance rates for passengers and freight carried by airplane are far lower in Germany than in the United States, and that insurance rates on valuables carried from Paris to London by air are very much less than by the usual methods of transportation. While it seems that all the leading European countries have been willing to promote commercial aviation, the United States has done practically nothing.

It is no secret that in England and France commercial aviation is safer than in the United States. It is no secret that France and England are spending more money on aviation than we are. Last year England provided about \$1,750,000 to aid commercial aviation. This included the upkeep of commercial air ports, the surveying of new airways, the purchase of land for the improvement of air ports, construction of buildings thereon and a direct subsidy to the great Imperial Airways Corporation to enable it to carry on regular service between London and various cities on the Continent.

Turning from commercial aviation to military aviation, Senator Bingham is led to

believe from personal investigations that 90 per cent. of our military and naval pilots are convinced that the national defense can be greatly improved if the air service of the Army and the air service of the Navy are each made into a separate corps, similar to a marine corps, under the direction of our Navy Department.

Senator Bingham believes, however, that the best foundation for military and naval aviation is a healthy condition of affairs in commercial aviation. He suggests as the first step to be taken in an aviation program for the United States that a Bureau of Air Navigation in the Department of Commerce be established. Bills for such a bureau have in fact twice passed the Senate and failed to pass the House. Every other world power has had an agency of this kind for years. The United States has a bureau that gives aid to merchant navigation, but none that aids air navigation.

It should be the duty of this bureau to establish an aircraft inspection service to examine aviators and furnish certificates of their ability as pilots and of their physical fitness to fly. No one is now permitted to act as a captain or pilot of an ocean vessel unless he has a valid certificate from the Federal Government. It is extraordinary that similar provisions have not long ago been applied to the masters of aircraft. This proposed aircraft inspection service of the Department of Commerce should also be required to certify the aviation mechanics on whose ability depend in such great measure the lives of those who use aircraft.

The Department of Commerce might stimulate commercial aviation by laying out and maintaining navigable air routes that would be of service also to government agencies desiring to employ aircraft. The public should be educated as to the desirability of utilizing air mail and air express. The Bureau of Light Houses might well be authorized to provide lights and beacons for all Federal, State and municipal air ports. Radio stations should be maintained at all

air ports and the directional use of radio in air navigation thoroughly developed. The radio compass should be used for air as well as ocean navigation. Charts, also, should be provided by the Coast and Geodetic Survey. The functions of the Weather Bureau should be extended so as to give our air pilots adequate and frequent information regard-

ing conditions likely to be encountered along navigable air routes.

Senator Bingham also favors the policy of encouraging the Post Office Department to make liberal contracts for the transportation of mail and parcel post by air on terms calculated to build up and stimulate private enterprise in air lines.

Harnessing the Tide in the Bay of Fundy

TO MAKE possible the exportation of power at a projected tidal power plant on the Bay of Fundy on the international boundary between Maine and New Brunswick, the State of Maine took a referendum on September 14 to amend an existing law prohibiting export of power.

In June, 1924, Mr. Dexter P. Cooper applied to the Federal Power Commission for a permit to develop power on the Bay of Fundy. His application was referred to the International Joint Commission for investigation and recommendation. Mr. Cooper's plan is, very briefly, as follows: He proposes to erect a series of dams across the channels between the islands which separate Passamaquoddy Bay and Head Harbor from the Bay of Fundy, thereby creating two pools for the development of power by taking advantage of the wide range of tide in the Bay of Fundy.

This bay extends from the Island of Grand Manan, off the mouth of the St. Croix River northeast for one hundred and

fifty miles, separating New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. For two-thirds of its length it is a straight body of water forty miles wide; then it is split by a neck of land into two almost equal legs: Chignecto Bay and Minas Bay. At the head of the bay, in these two legs, the tide reaches a height of fifty feet. On the main bay at the city of St. John, of about thirty feet. The current at some points in the Bay is more swift than in any river. The usual speed of the water in the Bay is two knots an hour, but in the Minas Channel its rate is from eight to ten knots an hour. It is this swift current which is especially useful for water-power developments. A plant has been projected, in fact, by the British Government, at a point where the Minas Channel divides in two, and one could be established without interfering with navigation. Either of the plants so planned would use the tidal current rather than the head system, and storage would have to be provided for the periods in the twenty-four hours when the tide is

low. The promoters of the Cooper plan predict that half as much electric power will be produced as at Niagara Falls, or four times that generated at Muscle Shoals.

The Federal Power Commission is doubtful of the feasibility of Mr. Cooper's plan. Aside from the difficulties presented by the international nature of the Bay of Fundy, the expense of installing such a plant would be very great. It is estimated that it would cost from seventy-five to one hundred million dollars.



PASSAMAQUODDY BAY AND BAY OF FUNDY

New Inquiries about Cancer

THE medical crusader desiring to make himself most effective in the warfare against disease is likely to select as his objective those unruly groups of cells that occasionally occur in the human body and are called cancers.

The cause of cancer is unknown, its treatment is uncertain at the best, it has been a growing menace to human life, and it seems to attack those who have attained such an age that affliction by a lingering disease attracts wide notice. Little wonder that in nearly every medical research laboratory of the world some studies of malignant growths are under way.

The expectations of the public have been aroused recently through the work of two British scientists, Dr. W. E. Gye and J. E. Barnard. The reports of their experiments were given to the world through the medium of the British medical journal, the *Lancet*, but it is a question whether the future will fulfil the editor's enthusiastic comment: "The two communications . . . mark an event in the history of medicine.

They may present a solution of the central problem of cancer."

Certainly the work of Gye and Barnard is interesting. Building upon a foundation laid some fourteen years ago by Dr. Peyton Rous of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, New York City, Dr. Gye has made experiments with tumor cells that afflict chickens such as cancer attacks human beings. Dr. Rous more than a decade ago showed that these tumors could be transmitted from fowl to fowl by the liquid from minced-up tumors, even after it has been passed through the finest of filters that strain out all cells and even microorganisms as small as the ordinary microscope can detect.

Starting here Dr. Gye has produced evidence that the active agent in this well-filtered but virulent essence of cancer actually undergoes multiplication under favorable conditions, just as the well-known germs of typhoid fever and other diseases increase in number when cultured. Other experiments seem to have introduced a new conception into the cancer problem. This virus or minute germ of cancer, if such it is that is contained in the virulent filtrate, is not in itself capable of producing cancer but must have the aid or presence of another

agent, probably a chemical substance, which is contained in the cancerous growths. It is as if the switch controlling the starting of a cancerous growth were double locked and two keys had to be turned in the locks before growth could start.

Expressed in Dr. Gye's own words, his conclusions are as follows:

These researches have led me to look upon cancer—using the term in its widest sense—as a specific disease caused by a virus (or group of viruses). Under experimental conditions the virus alone is ineffective; a second specific factor, obtained from tumor extracts, ruptures the cell defenses and enables the virus to infect. Under natural conditions, continued "irritation" of tissues sets up a state under which infection can occur. The connection between the specific factor of a tumor and an irritant remains to be investigated. Some of the relatively unimportant "irritants" are known, such as coal tar, paraffin oils, etc. The virus probably lives and multiplies in the cell and provokes the cell to continued multiplication.

Using an improved form of that useful optical instrument, the ultramicroscope, Mr. Barnard has collaborated with Dr. Gye in photographing the organism charged with causing cancer. The photographic plate records the ultraviolet light that has a wave-length shorter than the human eye can see. With this shorter wave-length of light, microorganisms that are beyond the border line of visibility in ordinary visible light can be photographed; and it is for this reason that the microscope illuminated with ultra-violet light recorded photographically has penetrated the depths of the infinitesimal far enough to obtain a portrait of the filter-passing culprit to whom the crime of cancer is partially attributed.

It is doubtful if this scientific dragnet has conclusively proved the Gye-Barnard ultra-visible spheroidal germ to be guilty of the kind of chicken cancer upon which Dr. Gye experimented. In fact, the medical jury has been quick to cast dissenting votes on the grounds of insufficient evidence.

It seems more than doubtful, in fact practically certain, that the Gye-Barnard germ or virus is not the cause or even one factor in the dual cause of all cancers. Dr. Gye experimented only incidentally upon human cancer, and he has made no claims as to applicability of his work in applied clinical medicine. Such application will require years of additional research.

The idea that cancer is caused by a germ or parasite is by no means novel. In fact, two schools have grown up within the circles of cancer research: those who hold that cancer is a revolution among body cells without outside aid, and those who hold that the abnormal growth takes place upon instigation and with the aid of an external factor, germ or parasite.

Dozens of germs or microorganisms have been found associated with cancers and blamed as causative agents. The Glover microorganism and a microorganism isolated by Nuzum are among those for which claims are being put forth at the present time. Dr. Erwin F. Smith, the U. S. Department of Agriculture's expert on plant diseases, has pointed out the close similarity between crown gall in plants and cancer in animals. Worms, cockroaches, nematodes, and other parasites are common starting points for cancers, while soot, coal tar, and other irritants are known to provide the initial impetus for a cancer both experimentally and in actual experience. It may be that all of these manifestations and possible causes will lead to one general causative factor; but it is possible, and upon the present knowledge it seems more probable, that a variety of causes of cancer will be discovered in the future.

Meanwhile the one woman in eight and the one man in fourteen, over forty, who die of cancer will act as a spur to research and will be a warning to the layman to be on his guard.

Cancer can be and has been cured, provided the growth is caught early enough. Lacking in pain in the early stages, cancer is insidious due to the lack of this usual warning signal.

Quack remedies annually cause thousands of deaths from cancer. Radium, X-rays, and surgery are the only effective cures at the present time.

How these agencies affect the cells that "runnin' wild" form malignant growths is explained by the American Society for the Control of Cancer as follows:

The treatment of cancer by means of radium and X-rays seeks to exert a direct and destructive influence upon the cancer cells. The effects are fortunately not as injurious to normal tissues as to the cancer cells which are exposed to them. Contrary to popular opinion, radium and X-rays have no peculiar healing or curative properties; and, although they may be usefully employed in some forms of cancer, in others they have little or no application. Occasionally they have been known to stimulate cancer growths. Their proper use implies an amount of skill and experience not less than that which is required in first-class surgery.

Surgery can remove cancers provided they are not too extensive or connected with vital organs. It can do so with a degree of precision which is the result of the accumulated experience of innumerable students of anatomy and operative technic over all the long period of recorded history.

No other form of cure which has been proposed has anything like so much definitely recorded experience and such definite instruction to offer.

For a patient to prefer to trust himself to an irresponsible old woman with a secret remedy for cancer instead of to a skillful surgeon with all the resources of a good hospital is inconceivable on any ground other than that of a lack of knowledge of the facts.

Sanitary Reforms in the Oyster Industry

THE oyster industry on the Atlantic coast of the United States suffered a serious blow last year, when widespread publicity was given to the fact that certain outbreaks of typhoid fever had been traced to contaminated oysters. This episode led to various conferences and investigations and to the adoption of measures that are expected to safeguard both the public and the industry against similar experiences in the future. The facts are set forth in *Clinical Medicine* (Chicago) by Dr. Isaac D. Rawlings, director of the Illinois Health Department. Illinois was the state in which the principal typhoid outbreak occurred and in which drastic measures of

protection were taken, including an order forbidding the eating of raw oysters.

The writer recalls the fact that as long ago as 1915 outbreaks of typhoid occurring about the same time at points in Illinois, Indiana, New York and Pennsylvania were traced to contaminated oysters harvested at a certain place in Chesapeake Bay, where several cases of typhoid had occurred among oyster shuckers. After this epidemic little was heard about oyster-borne typhoid until an outbreak occurred at Evanston, Ill., in November and December, 1923. The source of the infected oysters in this case was located at another point on Chesapeake Bay, where measures of sani-

tation were promptly inaugurated. Among other innovations, daily bacteriological examinations were introduced at the Maryland shipping point. At the same time the problem of devising a practical means for minimizing the health danger from contaminated raw oysters, handled in bulk, was brought to the attention of the Illinois Board of Public Health Advisors in January of 1924.

From the outset, it was realized that one of the chief difficulties was the identification of oysters. Local merchants usually buy from more than one wholesaler and the latter, in turn, buys from a number of national distributors. The national distributors buy from numerous producers. In addition to this, the producers and distributors follow the practice of pooling shipments to distant points so that one car lot may bring oysters from several shippers consigned to several different merchants. Still more perplexing was the practice of oyster shippers of omitting to label their containers.

The action of the Board of Public Health Advisors caused a number of subsequent conferences between State and local health authorities, State pure food authorities and representatives of the oyster industry. These conferences culminated in the creation of a standard for judging the sanitary quality of oysters. The standard was approved on December 6th by the Director of the Illinois Department of Public Health and the Board of Public Health Advisors, with the general understanding that it should become effective on January 1, 1925.

A more serious typhoid outbreak, also attributed to oysters, occurred in Chicago, beginning in November, 1924, and while this was in progress outbreaks were reported from such widely separated places as New York, Cincinnati and Washington. A conservative attitude was at first adopted by the health authorities and comparatively little publicity was given in the newspapers to the danger of eating raw oysters. However, as conditions grew worse a definite warning was issued through the newspapers, with the result that the sale of oysters was greatly curtailed throughout the country. A set of regulations rigidly modifying the sale of raw oysters and making it illegal to eat raw oysters in Illinois was put into effect. No restrictions were imposed upon the consumption of cooked oysters.

These events led to a conference at Springfield between the State health authorities and the National Oyster Growers and Dealers Association. A plan for ensuring sanitary conditions in the oyster industry, adopted at this conference, was subsequently also adopted at a meeting of

national scope held in Washington. It is embodied in the following text:

"Resolutions adopted by Conference of U. S. Public Health Service, Bureau of Chemistry, Bureau of Fisheries, with State and Municipal Health Authorities, State Conservation Commissions and Representatives of the Shellfish Industry Regarding Measures to Insure the Future Safety of Shellfish. Held at the Bureau of the Public Health Service, Washington, D. C., February 19, 1925.

"1.—The beds on which shellfish are grown must be determined, inspected and controlled by some State and Federal official agency.

"2.—The plants in which shellfish are shucked or otherwise prepared or packed by the shipper must be inspected and controlled by some State and Federal official agency.

"3.—The freedom from typhoid bacilli of the workers who handle shellfish must be determined by some official governmental agency.

"4.—Failing to secure sufficiently high standards to protect the people as regards beds, floating and plumping practices and methods of shucking or other methods of preparation, a satisfactory practical method of pasteurization, or other heat treatment or chemical, or biological method which produces satisfactory results, must be installed and operated under proper governmental supervision.

"5.—There must be such governmental supervision and such trade organization as will make plain the source of shellfish and will prevent shellfish from one source being substituted for those from another source. This will be chiefly a problem of the individual State.

"6.—The methods of shipping must be supervised, inspected, controlled and approved of by the proper official Federal and interstate agency.

"7.—The methods of storing, displaying for sale and dispensing must be determined, inspected and controlled by the proper State or city agency.

"8.—The product must conform to an established, bacterial standard and must meet Federal, State and local laws and regulations relative to salinity, water content, food proportion and conform to the Pure Food Law standards. There should be a revision of the existing bacteriological standards for oysters."

The National Oyster Committee met with chairmen of sub-committees on June 2nd, in Washington, and there is every evidence that oysters in the future will be grown under better conditions and supervised by both National and State officials. The finished product, when shipped into Illinois in the future, will have a certificate authenticated by the state health authority and the U. S. Public Health Service. These precautions should make oysters safe and wholesome as a food. Still greater guarantee of safety can be obtained if these certified oysters are bought by the consumer in original package cans, thus preventing both the possibility of contamination or adulteration by the middleman or the final dealer who sells the product. There is considerable evidence, too, that chlorination process for oysters will soon be worked out which will provide still greater guarantees for safety to the consumer.

The entire oyster industry is to be congratulated on the enormous strides made for providing safe, wholesome oysters.

The Proud Past of Lawn Tennis

THERE is an interesting and suggestive article in the August *Nineteenth Century* (London) on the "Literature of Lawn Tennis," by E. B. Noel, author of several books on the subject, and, in collaboration with J. O. M. Clark, of a comprehensive history of the game. Mr. Noel has limited this bibliography strictly to books on lawn tennis; this is the distinctly modern form of the game, and he rules out the older forms from his discussion in these few words:

Those who have made any study of the early history of lawn tennis will know that in the 'seventies there was much discussion as to whether the game was new or rediscovered and revived. That it had forerunners which it resembled is undoubted, and a book of 1837 (Walker's "Games and Sports") has an illustration of a pastime of the kind being played on grass. But it was Maj. Walter Clopton Wingfield who brought his form of court into general notice in the summer of 1874; and modern opinion gives him

the honor of being the inventor of lawn tennis. He called his game *Sphairistiké*, and he wrote a little book on it which may truly be called the first book on lawn tennis.

Mr. Noel then mentions the leading writers on the game from that time to the present day. An American, Dr. James Dwight of Boston, was the first player-writer (1886). The standard books of Mr. Julian Marshall, one containing a complete history of the game, and those of the Heathcotes were written during the early days of its revival. After that, little appeared until the present century, but to-day the list of writers on the subject is not only very lengthy, but reads like a "Who's Who" of the tennis champions of Britain, France and the United States.

It is certainly common knowledge that tennis did not begin with lawn tennis nor does the game invented by Major Wingfield seem as new and different as he would have us believe. He speaks of the antiquity of the game: It was in Greece that it was played under the name *Sphairistiké*; the Romans called it *Pila*; hardly a king of France or England but was a devotee. Louis the tenth of France was found dead in a too cool grotto where he had lain down after a heating "rubber" of tennis. Most of the Henrys and the two Charleses of England were ardent players. Everyone knows Henry V. knew the game, for the incident of the gift of the tennis balls by the Dauphin to Henry was taken by Shakespeare from the chronicles. When Henry is told that the ambassadors of the Dauphin have arrived with a "tun of treasure" for him he asks:

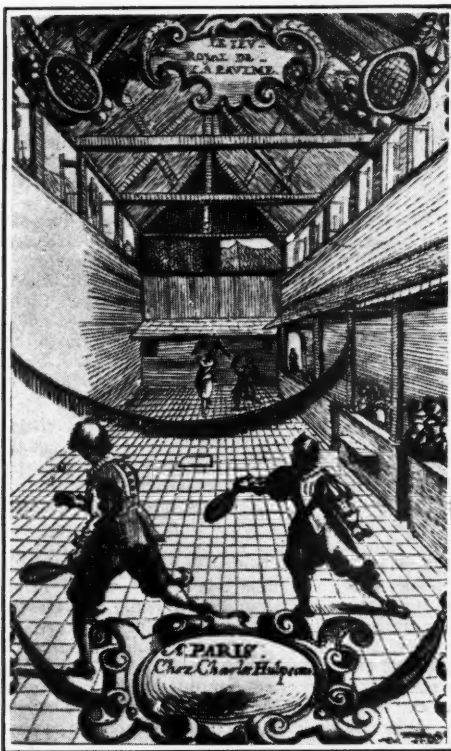
What treasure, uncle?

EXETER— Tennis balls, my liege.

KING HENRY—We are glad the Dauphin is so pleasant with us;

His present, and your pains, we thank you for: When we have match'd our rackets to these balls, We will, in France, by God's grace, play a set, Shall strike his father's crown into the hazard: Tell him he hath made a match with such a wrangler. That all the courts of France will be disturb'd With chases.

Major Wingfield is hardly correct in making the statement that the game had died out during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, although it is true that it was confined largely to the upper classes of society at this time. He ignores much



From Marshall's "Annals of Tennis"

TENNIS IN FRANCE IN 1632

(Known as the 'Game of Kings,' it was played by the rulers of the day and their followers on a hard indoor court with small, rubber balls and spoonlike racquets)

testimony of its existence, among it such booklets as "The Annals of Gaming, or the Fair Player's Sure Guide, by a Connoisseur" which appeared in 1775 and contained the following account of the game of tennis:

Ninety-six, or 97 feet by 33 or 34, is generally about the size of a tennis court, there being no need for exact dimensions to be ascribed to its proportions, a foot more or less in length or width being of no consequence. A line or net hangs exactly travers the middle, over which the ball must be struck, either with a racquet, or board, to make any stroke good whatsoever. . . . Instead of its being marked one, two, three, four it is called fifteen, thirty, forty, game, unless the players get four strokes each; then instead of calling it forty all, it is called Deuce (he explains this).

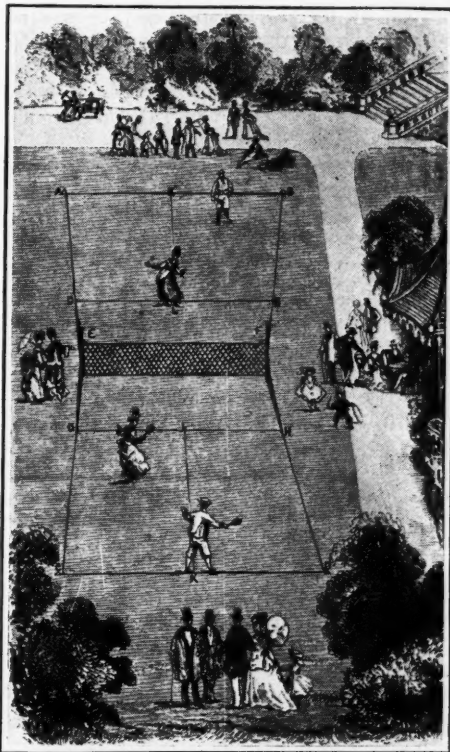
. . . to avoid trouble there are always a great number of balls in use.

This game seems to differ hardly enough from the game Major Wingfield describes to justify his claim of having invented the latter. Indeed his chief innovation seems to be an "hourglass" shape for the court, rather than the rectangular one of the past and present.

Perhaps one of the reasons for the instant popularity of "Sphairistiké" was that it gave an England bored to death of its recent croquet fad something to do with its croquet courts, as well as an excellent new game.

There is not a writer on the subject of tennis who does not allude to its proud past. Such tributes as this in Mr. Julian Marshall's "Annals of Tennis," are repeated again and again:

Tennis, the "King of Games," or as others have it, the "Game of Kings," may rest its claim to the former title upon its antiquity as well as on the degree of skill, activity, and endurance which it



SPHAIRISTIKÉ, "INVENTED" IN 1874

(Major Wingfield's book describing this game is the first book on Lawn Tennis. Notice the "hourglass" court, wider at the base lines than at the net. Says Major Wingfield: "while an adept at tennis or racquets would speedily become a scientific player, the merest tyro can learn it in five minutes for all practical purposes.")

demands. That a game so old as tennis should still exist in almost the precise form in which it has lived through two or three centuries, and but little changed, and that very gradually, from its anterior and ruder shape, is evidence enough of its worth. . . .

A Hundred Years of Photography

IT IS hard to remember that the art of photography is only one hundred years old when it plays such a large part to-day in making us acquainted with the world. The centenary of the discovery of photography was officially commemorated at the Sorbonne last July, however, and the celebration, as well as the meeting of the Sixth International Photographers' Congress in Paris, is the occasion for an article by M. Charles Nordmann in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris).

M. Nordmann discusses the many uses of

photography in science resulting from its superiority to the human eye for observing and recording; in art, by making accurate reproductions of great works of art accessible to all; in helping to make foreign lands and people known to us. But of particular interest to our readers, perhaps, is his summary of the steps by which the discovery of photography was made and developed as it is to-day.

For a long time previous to the discovery of the actual method, scientists had been fascinated by the problem of fixing images

thrown by light. The property of certain salts of silver of darkening when exposed to light has been known to scientists since the days of Fabricius, who is credited with its discovery in 1565. In 1727 a German doctor named Schultze fastened a paper pattern on the outside of a flask containing silver nitrate solution, and exposed it to the light. When he removed the pattern he had a white image of it on the flask's contents which had turned black from the action of the light. On further exposure, of course, the image also darkened and disappeared.

Charles, the French physician-aeronaut, and Wedgwood, an Englishman, both devised methods for obtaining images by utilizing silver chloride or nitrate, but could not fix them.

At about this point, Nicéphore Niepce, a Frenchman, entered the field of investigation. In 1813 he had the idea of using Judean bitumen in the copying of pictures. After many trials, he found that a thin coating of this bitumen on a metal plate when covered with a print soaked in oil until transparent and exposed to light, was imprinted with a faint white image of the picture. He dissolved away the part of the bitumen which had not been exposed to the light through the transparent part of the picture, leaving only the lines of the drawing. By etching these lines with acid he obtained a metal plate from which any number of reproductions of the original picture could be made. This was the process later called heliography.

The next step was the fixing of an image thrown on the plate by light from real objects. Niepce did this by using Judean bitumen on glass, and the depth to which

this varnish was affected when exposed to the image of light transmitted the shadings of the photographic image. The first image obtained by this method was probably made in 1822, the true year of the birth of photography.

In 1826, Niepce obtained the reproduction of an image on a metal plate by the use of iodine. In this same year he received a letter from a man unknown to him, Daguerre, a painter who was interested in the invention of a *diorama*, and who wished to collaborate with Niepce. Shortly after this, Niepce died, and Daguerre continued his work and amplified it in many ways. His first step was the substitution of silver salts for the Judean bitumen, which required a very long period of exposure. The daguerreotype soon succeeded the heliograph. By 1835, Daguerre had obtained a plate composed of a thin layer of iodine spread over a silvered surface, which after being exposed in the dark room was placed in a warm mercury bath to bring out the latent picture, and make it positive. Such a picture, however, was not really fixed, and gradually darkened upon exposure to light. It was some time later when Daguerre found that a solution of salt would dissolve away the coat of iodine which caused the further darkening.

The work of Bayard and Talbot, who substituted paper for the metal plate and first used hyposulfide fixative; the work of the nephew of Niepce himself, who practically created photography on glass, and the many further perfections that give us the beautiful reproductions of to-day, all owe their development to the original discoveries of Niepce and Daguerre, made a hundred years ago.

Our "Columns" and "Column" Writers

THE art of "column" writing is American and modern and flourishes particularly brightly to-day in New York. Its product, the "column," appears daily, usually situated in a position of honor on or near the editorial page, and in the hands of a super-columnist, it is often one of the strongest "sticks" of type in the newspaper. For the super-columnist fears not God, editor, or subscriber. The *Saturday Literary Review* (New York) describes the "colyum" as "a perpetual turning inside

out of the colyum conductor's personality"; and in the process he comments on the world and all its ways, often illuminatingly, almost always entertainingly. The columnist regards everything, particularly himself, with twinkling and irreverent eyes. (The *Saturday Review* says that it is this quality of the columnist of "never taking himself seriously which excludes British competition. But think of the columns Laurence Stern, or Addison, or Thackeray could have conducted to-day!")

The Conning Tower

GOTHAM GLEANINGS

- Looks like Walker for Mayor.
- Bill McAdoo of California is in town for a few days.
- Grant Rice was a Great Neck visitor last week, the guest of friends.
- Well, here is the last week in August, the dear old five-payday month.
- Jack Baragwanath was ailing last Thursday, but is o. k. at this writing.
- Dudley Malone was to Forest Hills last week, also Amos Pinchot, Sam Adams, and Al Gibney.
- Gerald Brooks is taking lessons in tennis, and says he will be able to beat those who just play by ear.
- Bob Benchley was given an elaborate breakfast Tuesday morning in honor of his trip abroad. Ye ed. pured.
- Mr. A. H. Woolcott was a pleasant caller at The World office Friday afternoon, receiving the encomia of his new associates.

If the musical comedy version of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" actually is to be played in London—and the cables say it is to be—there will probably be a big production number known as the "Sixteen Tiller Bloodhounds," and the management, with an eye to publicity, may try to induce Gertrude Ederle to cross the lot.

SCIENCE MARTYR GROWS WEAK

Groesbeck Can't End Test, Say Savants

GAVE UP SMOKING—AUGUST SIX ONE MONTH NO MORE GUARANTEED IN INTEREST OF SCIENCE TO SETTLE ONCE AND FOR ALL CONTROVERSY IS SMOKING HARMFUL. STOP FIRST REPORT HEREWITH SMOKING BAD FOR SMOKER BUT GOOD FOR FAMILY STOP SECOND WEEK WORSE THAN FIRST DOUBT CAN MAKE IT SUGGESTED HEADING THIS INSTALLMENT SCIENCE MARTYR VISIBLY WEAKER. SUBHEAD SAVANTS SAY CANNOT COMPLETE TEST KENNETH GROESBECK

The Haytian Consul at Manchester, N. H., arrived Thursday from Port-au-Prince, bringing with him 240 bottles of liquor and a barrel of rum. The liquor was seized and the Consul was fined \$1,200. Yesterday he got a telegram of condolence from the man who tried to hide a bass drum.

Entered for the Anti-Climax Prize, this from the Boston Post: "Mr. Landers wrote that there were only two pins he cared to wear—one the Grand Army of the Republic button, and the Boston Edison Big Brother Club emblem."

Among the warmest indoors of the 5-cent fare are the turnstile manufacturers.

F. P. A.

The Sun Dial

Snoopy Hollow Correspondence on Those Tax Returns.

Snoopy Hollow, Sept. 5.—Your correspondent learns that Philip Z. Ashtray, clam chowder trust president, paid \$44,811 for 1924, all in pennies. The year previous he paid \$176,647.10. He either changed lawyers or found a new way to figure it out himself, folks are saying.

Prentice Adz, owner of six tire factories, a wire mill and eighteen orange drink stands, paid \$166.25. What people hereabouts are intimating about Prentice can't be printed.

Nobody here seems to place Antonio Piazza, who is listed as paying on an income of over \$600,000, but the general opinion is he must be the man that runs the gasoline pumping station at the crossroads.

Frisby W. Eggnaunce, whose name is totally unfamiliar to anybody in the village, is down as having paid \$300,000. He is either a prizefighter, a bootlegger or a prohibition enforcement agent, we opine.

Mrs. Clara X. Frizzle, who lives quietly and drives a popular priced car, paid \$86,924.15. The fifteen cents seems reasonable enough, but how to account for the rest of it has the catty neighbors are talking something awful.

Avery Whizbang, lawyer, is down for \$67,000. Now we know he can't be honest.

Ass W. Sprucegum, the real estate man and feed dealer, paid \$4,037, revealing an income of over \$40,000 a year. Comment at the barber shop is that he must spend it outside, as his wife has been wearing the same hat two years and he's over \$50 behind in his pew rent.

Dialogues Out of the Dead Past.

Who's that girl that just passed? That's Ella Griddle. She can't be very respectable. Why not?

She wears silk stockings!

Jennie, I don't want you to go with that Snithers girl any more.

Why not, mommer?

Your father and I saw her in a restaurant the other day disgracing herself and the entire community.

What was she doing?

I don't think you're old enough to hear.

Please tell me, mommer.

Well, if you must know, SHE WAS SMOKING A CIGARETTE!

H. I. PHILLIPS

A LINE O' TYPE OR TWO

How to the Line, let the quips fall where they may.

TWO COMMANDERS.

Yell, my babe, with shrieks diurnal,
Call for me with howls infernal;
Dout me up with yowls nocturnal;
Dack a page in my life's journal
You remind me of my Colonel!

Though not such a tough dragon, you're
As I was to him, the junior;
Loud as ever you may tune your
Front-and-Center call, it's punier.

Old line, hard-boiled, soldier mellow,
Even so he used to bellow;
He, too, gave me merry hell—Oh,
I don't mind commands, young fellow.

THE SOLICITOR.

SEPT.

7

MONDAY

LABOR DAY. (Also danced hot. That is, if it's anything like yesterday.) Magellan's ships completed the circumnavigation of the globe, 1522. (He sailed by many an iceberg when rounding the Horn. Oh, icebergs! icebergs! Our kingdom for an iceberg!) Queen Elizabeth born, 1533. She was red-headed, and she shut her eyes when they executed the Lady Jane Grey. (Perhaps it was as hot that September 7th when Elizabeth was born as it is today; that was what made her red-headed.) Captain John Fortenac lynched by mob, 1735. (John probably said, "Is it hot enough for you?"—and served him dem right.)

From a Railroad Viewpoint.

Dick: If Dono Mears doesn't take that lower space pretty soon, for heaven's sake cancel the reservation and make her take an upper.

WALLINGHO.

We Can Talk About Buying 'Em, Can't We?

R. H. L.: As one who has just concluded a motor tour of New England, visiting some seventy-five antique shops and inquiring for the E. Z. Boos log cabin bottle, the Butterfly table and the Comb Back (non-rocking) Windsor chair, for which you publicly have proclaimed a craving, permit me to inquire where you acquire such expensive tastes. You must have a private fortune that enables you to gratify them.

MISS ANTIQUE.

O, Where, Little Flapper, O, Where, O Where?

R. H. L.: The flapper's vocabulary doesn't mean anything. What we want to know is where does she live? She combs her hair in the movies, colors her lips, blacks her eyebrows, rouges her face and powders her nose at the sidewalk mirrors, and rolls her stockings on the L platform. She drinks her moon at the roadhouse, sits in leaping lina to smoke her cigarettes, and dances everywhere. But where in all does she live?

BOSSIN.

This space reserved for Dono Mears.

GREAT HEVINGS! We had a grand last line for this morning, but it's gone! Yes, sir, gone; burned to a cinder.

R. H. L.

EXCERPTS FROM THREE CHARACTERISTIC "COLUMNS"—THE "WORLD" AND "SUN" OF NEW YORK AND THE CHICAGO "TRIBUNE"

The column-writing industry centered in Chicago until recently. There during the 'nineties it fostered and was fostered by such great columnists as Eugene Field and Bert Leston Taylor.

Eugene Field was, perhaps, the first of this tribe of mass-producers of light, pertinent prose and verse. He wrote a column for the Chicago *Daily News* entitled, "Sharps and Flats," varied in manner, and certainly in quality. Yet it was here that most of his

writings that still hold a high place in the literary world, first appeared. It was a jumble of prose and verse, detached paragraphs, longer narratives, by turns whimsical and grotesque, exquisite and Rabelaisian, pathetic and heartily funny. During the twelve years of his generalcy he wrote 2300 words a day almost without a break, and almost all himself. In his very first column he solemnly introduced this and similar items to a startled Chicago public:

The Vanderbilts have invited Henry Irving and Christine Nilsson to put up at their ranch during their New York season. It is amazing to contemplate the bother some folks will put themselves to in order to get a pass to a show.

Soon after this column was under way, Bert Leston Taylor began conducting one in the Chicago *Tribune* called a "Line o' Type or Two." B. L. T., as he called himself, is perhaps a closer model for modern columnists than Field. His work has been an inspiration to at least one of New York's best more-than-paragraphers as this tribute from F. P. A. attests:

It is not easy to compress into a few words everything I have been thinking for more than twenty years about Bert Taylor's verse.

For though to my mind he was easily the best paragrapher that ever achieved the art of putting the front page or the leading editorial, or a whole political, literary, or artistic situation into twenty-five words, his verses were even better than his paragraphs.

He must have been the despair of every columnist in the country. Certainly he was mine.

To-day this column still appears under the management of Richard Henry Little (R. H. L.).

In New York a few of the columnists to whose part of the paper many people turn without even a first glance at the headlines are as follows: Don Marquis, poet, philosopher, and humorist, who until a few weeks ago edited and wrote the "Lantern" in the *Tribune*, and his young successor, Edward Hope Coffey. Franklin Pierce Adams, better known as F. P. A., who began his journalistic career in Chicago in 1903, and has conducted most successful columns of recent years on the New York *Evening Mail*, then the *Tribune*, and at present in the *World*; Bert Haley and Jay E. House on the *Post*; and H. L. Phillips running the "Sun Dial" for the New York *Sun*.

These men vary in the number of outside contributions they publish, in the effort they put into their work, in the facility and variety in using different kinds of type and novel literary forms. That much of their work is slap-dash is inevitable; the amazing part of it all is that it is as good as it is and as spontaneous as the best of it is. These columnists are our modern version of the court jester, shaking their bells for a no less exacting, and a much larger, public.

California's Diamond Jubilee

SEVENTY-FIVE years ago, on October 18, 1850, the *Oregon* sailed into the Golden Gate of San Francisco with all her bunting fluttering and signalled the news to an excited populace that six weeks before the state of California had been admitted into the Union. The town went mad with joy. This year on the 9th of September, the day when the bill was finally passed, ratified, and signed, California held a Diamond Jubilee of her admission to statehood.

The *Argonaut*, an enterprising and reliable San Francisco weekly, in its issue of September 5th summarizes the history of the battle which ended in this recognition. Speaking of the celebration of the anniversary, it says:

But the idea that anything we can put forward, with all our modern resources of wealth and population, will adequately represent the ecstatic and spontaneous pandemonium that broke loose in San Francisco when the *Oregon* brought the news . . . is wholly untenable . . . The phenomenon of a whole town, a whole region, going crazy with delight within the narrow space of an hour, and organizing between the spasms of its joyous delirium such a demonstration of patriotic exuberance as

had never previously been witnessed in any section of the country, is one that cannot be adequately reproduced.

The region had only been ceded to the United States two years before, but the gold rush had brought a vigorously ambitious population with it, and the demand for state government was begun almost instantly. By September, 1849, California had already adopted a State constitution, and in December she convened her first legislature. This legislature was known as "the Legislature of a Thousand Drinks." By January, 1850, it sent delegates to Washington to secure the admission of California as the thirty-first State of the Union.

In spite of the fact that her population at this time already exceeded 100,000, and her gold shipments were rapidly rendering America independent of the world, California's claim to statehood was violently opposed. For, in view of existing conditions, the admission of any new State was a matter of great seriousness. Fifteen of the thirty States already in the Union were slave States, and fifteen were "free"

States, and California must inevitably destroy this equilibrium.

General John C. Frémont, "the Pathfinder," and William M. Gwin, the Senators elected by the California Legislature, headed the delegation. General Frémont was a Northerner and an anti-slavery man, while Gwin was elected partly because he was a Southerner.

When the delegation arrived in Washington, Clay attempted a compromise with limited State rights, which failed; Calhoun, who was dying at the time, admonished Gwin in an interview that the entrance of California into the Union would probably precipitate civil war. President Zachary Taylor, however, demanded that Gwin act for California rather than as a Southerner, and, himself wishing to see California made a State, did everything in his power before he died. Popular feeling ran high about California's right to statehood. William H. Seward said in one debate that if California was not accepted "inevitable dismemberment of the empire" would result, anyway. Certainly feeling in California was so great at this delay that secession threatened. However, in August the Senate passed the bill, with a large block of Southerners still opposing, and it was subsequently ratified by the House and signed by President Fillmore on September 9.

Then it was that, six weeks later, San Francisco went wild. The news was carried through the Santa Clara valley at record speed by the San Jose stage, changing teams at all the regular stations, and never slowing its horses from a gallop. Parades,

prayers, all manners of celebrations followed, so vociferous as to receive this editorial comment in the London *Times*:

Forget for a moment the decorative features of this exhibition, and consider the extraordinary character of the facts it symbolized. Here was a community of some hundreds of thousands of souls. [There were in reality only about 120,000 at this time] collected from all quarters of the known world—Polynesians and Peruvians, Englishmen and Mexicans, Germans and New Englanders, Spaniards and Chinese, all organized under old Saxon institutions, and actually marching under the command of a mayor and alderman. Nor was this all, for the extemporized State had demanded and obtained its admission into the most powerful federation in the world, and was recognized as part of the American Union. A third of the time which has been consumed in erecting our House of Parliament has here sufficed to create a State with a territory as large as Great Britain [this is an understatement, says the *Argonaut*], a population difficult to number, and destinies which none can foresee.

In 1850, the State produced fifty million dollars' worth of gold, which doubled the entire amount produced in the United States during its fifty-five years of independence. In the next twenty-five years, the output was increased to \$1,000,000,000 worth of gold. And in the years 1921, 1922 and 1923, the oil output has totalled \$620,000,000.

But the value of the gold of 1853—the great gold year—and the oil of 1923—the great oil year—taken together, do not touch the value of the crops now being raised each year in the orchards, farms, and vineyards of the State, that are sending out their products to every corner of the world . . .

And, even with these things progressing so, California does not seem to be even nearing the achievement of those higher destinies which in 1850 could not be foreseen.

Large Land Holdings in North Dakota

PERSONS now in middle life will have no difficulty in recalling the time when the phrase "Bonanza Farms" was a common one in this country. As a rule, the term was applied to large land holdings in North Dakota for several years before and after the admission of that State to the Union, in the last two decades of the Nineteenth Century. Socialistic writers of that period had a great part in giving currency to the expression. Many of those who read their works or listened to their speeches came to believe that farms of that type were very numerous in North Dakota and that they showed a remarkable concentration

of capital in agriculture. In advertising the State, railroads and land agents were perhaps not unwilling that such reports should gain credence.

So it has come about that belief in the existence of these bonanza farms has persisted in the Eastern States, although there have been few recent developments to confirm it. In the *Journal of Land and Public Utility Economics* (Chicago), Mr. Alva H. Benton draws upon the actual facts of the North Dakota farm situation sufficiently to show that relatively few large land holdings of the bonanza type now exist in that State. It is admitted that the

average North Dakota farm is larger than in other North Central States. But this feature is accounted for on the score of physical conditions and economic developments.

As to those large farms in eastern North Dakota which characterized the opening up of that region to settlement, and became known far and wide as bonanza farms, they are not to be called typical of the State at the present time. To a great extent, they have already been broken up into smaller farm units ranging from 320 acres to 640 acres in size. In the country, west of the Missouri river, large cattle ranches were common from 1880 to 1900. But most of this land also is now divided into farms devoted to grain and stock-raising. Of course, it is understood that the ranchers of that period owned little or no land. They were usually squatters on unsold Government land.

Mr. Benton's contention is, that the bonanza farms were not established on a permanent economic basis. They did not indicate a trend, but rather a temporary phase in the history of farming in the State. Mr. Benton points out that the concentration of large farm areas under one management was closely associated with railroad development. The railroads obtained enormous land grants and naturally were desirous of bringing permanent settlers into the country on whom they had to depend for freight revenue.

Men who came into the country for the purpose of farming on a large scale added to their purchases from the railroad company by buying direct from homesteaders or by the purchase and use of United States military bounty land warrants and Indian war scrip, both of which were negotiable. By such means large contiguous tracts were secured. The Red River valley in the period when the bonanza farms were established (from 1877 to 1883) was known for its favorable weather conditions and the good yield of wheat, as well as the absence of serious insect pests. At that time, also, wheat prices were relatively high.

Hard spring wheat was in great demand by the millers and number 1 hard brought the farmers around \$1 a bushel. Under efficient bonanza farm conditions, this wheat was produced at a cost of 35 to 40 cents a bushel, according to William Dalrymple, the pioneer bonanza farm manager. For the years 1876 to 1879, he reported yields of more than 20 bushels per acre and his figures indicated a net profit of \$10 or \$12 per acre.

Poor harvests in England and European countries in the years 1879-1881, apparently had much to do with the high prices in America.

The history of the Dalrymple holdings is regarded by Mr. Benton as typical of North Dakota bonanza farm experience. The Dalrymple farm started in the '70's with 13,440 acres, purchased at from fifty to sixty cents an acre. By 1878, these holdings amounted to 100,000 acres, with 65,000 acres under cultivation.

The Dalrymple lands were operated in units of 2,000 to 3,000 acres, each presided over by a superintendent and foreman. In 1806, the partnership was dissolved and Dalrymple came into control of about 30,000 acres. The holding was divided into 10 units and was operated by the Dalrymples until 1918 when the estate was broken up and sold because the heirs felt the interest on the money was more than they could make from operating the land. Much of the land sold under the high prices that then prevailed has since reverted to them, and in 1925 they are erecting several new sets of buildings in order to farm under the changing conditions.

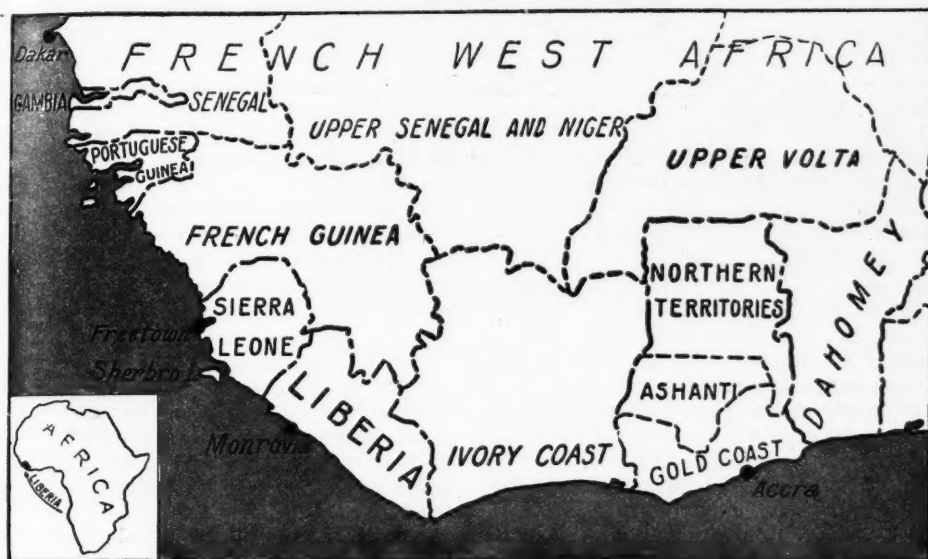
In considering the changing economic forces which have resulted in the gradual break-up of the bonanza farms in eastern North Dakota, Mr. Benton shows how the small farm came to be a more profitable unit than the bonanza farm. In the early years, the operators of large farms had several advantages over the small farmers.

They usually had sufficient capital to break up the prairie sod rapidly and to secure the necessary equipment for preparing, seeding, and harvesting the crops. They were in a position to ship in their supplies, horses, and machinery in carload lots, thereby making substantial savings in freight. They likewise could ship their wheat in carload lots and greatly reduce the local marketing costs which the small farmer was forced to pay. Favoritism toward large shippers was also by no means unknown at this period.

In course of time, the small farmers began to accumulate capital and to farm efficiently, and land values increased. When interest was figured on increased values as a part of cost when insect pests and plant diseases cut down the yield, when taxes rose, and when prices fell, the large farm with its many employees and expensive equipment was in a less favorable position than the small farm on which the farmer and his family did most of the work.

It appears, then, that bonanza farming was merely a passing phase in the development of the Northwest and was not always a profitable undertaking, even under the most favorable conditions.

Liberia's Fresh Start



MAP SHOWING LIBERIA'S POSITION IN WEST AFRICA

IN a recent issue of the *Journal of Negro History* (Washington, D. C.), Mr. Frederick Starr, an authority on his subject, discusses conditions in Liberia since the World War. Mr. Starr's summary of the financial situation in Liberia, past and present, is of particular interest to the reader since it is inclusive of many factors that are making and marring Liberia's chances for becoming a successful state.

Liberia celebrated a first centennial in 1923. The first colonists, freed American slaves, settled there in 1823 as a result of the work of the American Colonization Society. The statement made by one of these settlers, "Here we are and here we will remain," was used as the keynote of the celebration, and expresses the spirit of the settlers to-day no less than when it was first said in the face of hardly more discouraging conditions than now exist.

The financial standing of Liberia, according to Mr. Starr, has never been secure. In 1912, the government was forced to negotiate a loan, which has been in many ways more of a burden than a help, and since then, due largely to the war, the situation has been no less critical. It is only during the last year or so that the friends of the little state have been somewhat reassured.

In 1912, Liberia secured a loan of \$1,700,000 for the purpose of retiring certain pressing outstanding obligations. The loan was handled in New York, but foreign banks were asked to participate. To secure creditors, an international receivership of four nations was put in force, Liberia standing the administrative cost.

Considering the smallness of the loan it was a mistake to invoke the aid of foreign banks and to load the republic with a commission of heterogeneous composition. A single American receiver could have done all the necessary work, thus saving the Government the payment of three salaries and the danger of misunderstandings due to differences of race and interests. Under ordinary circumstances, after this arrangement, the republic might have struggled through its difficulties. With the coming of the war, the case was hopeless.

The Americo-Liberian population has done little in the past to develop natural resources, and the government is largely dependent on customs dues for its revenues.

Just before the outbreak of the Great War, about as many German ships put into Liberian ports in a month as those of all other nations together. With the war, these ships were, of course, withdrawn from operation. Not only so; the boats of other nations became irregular and infrequent.

What little trade remained was carried on under the most difficult political conditions, since Britain boycotted all German

houses and suspected hostiles. Serious food-shortage resulted in Liberia and finally led the United States to intervene. Liberia gave up its forced neutrality and declared war on the side of the Allies, deporting all Germans and seizing German properties, notably the cable station. This step, while it brought the friendship of Britain, was also attended by disaster. In 1918 a German submarine appeared off Monrovia and bombarded the city, destroying much property and sinking the single naval vessel of the republic.

Shortly before the close of the war, to relieve an increasingly acute financial crisis, the Liberian Government sent an appeal to the United States Government for an immediate loan of \$5,000,000 to be in the hands of the United States alone, to enable the republic to cancel the disastrous refunding loan of 1912, to take up their internal floating indebtedness, to stimulate agriculture and industry, and carry on necessary public works. It also asked for additional American agents to help the republic in the conduct of its government.

The negotiations over this appeal lasted four years. Under the general authority of a wartime act, President Wilson and Secretary Lansing notified the Republic that a credit of \$5,000,000 had been established and stated the legal formalities necessary to make it available. The end of the war brought negotiations to a standstill. It was not until June, 1920, that a Liberian Commission came to the United States, and everything pointed to the successful conclusion of the loan. The people of Liberia

were building all their plans to this end, and business was temporarily disorganized waiting upon the arrival of the funds. When finally the balance of the credit was withdrawn instead and the loan abandoned, the country was badly demoralized.

Mr. Starr sees in the 1923 message of the Liberian President to his Congress the first steps toward recovery. The increase during the last two years from custom dues alone ranges from approximately 40 to 400 per cent. The most spectacular rise has been at Cape Mount, where good roads into the interior and the first fruits of exploitation of its resources have raised the customs revenues from \$1,092.81 in 1920-21 to \$15,044.37 in 1923. Back interest on the foreign loan of 1912, and on internal indebtedness has been paid up, salaries of state officials are being paid regularly once more, and increasingly greater effort to cooperate with the native chiefs is being made.

However, Mr. Starr does not minimize the pitfalls which still beset the little republic. He concludes:

The Americo-Liberians are a little group. Its members are in constant and close personal contact. Division is dangerous; harmony is essential. . . . They face three watchful masses, each larger than themselves. They face a hinterland with an overwhelming native population that is capable, energetic, and waking; they face neighbors, strong and aggressive, hostile, unsympathetic and hypercritical; they face a world, somewhat cold and skeptical, doubtful whether they can maintain themselves. It will take the united wisdom of all, irrespective of party or family or creed, to maintain what the fathers started, and what, on the whole, marvellously, they have carried on.

The Weather Factor in Forest Fires

THE term "fire weather" has recently come into use to describe certain atmospheric conditions under which forest fires are particularly likely to occur. Thunderstorms, with their accompaniment of lightning, periods of low humidity and high temperature, and dry winds or winds of considerable velocity, are all conditions which, alone or in combination, tend to increase the fire hazard in the forest. The problem of predicting fire weather is one with which the Weather Bureau has been grappling for some years. Such predictions are greatly desired by foresters and the lumber interests. Foreknowledge of danger-

ous conditions makes it possible to take appropriate precautions, such as postponing the burning of slashings, and especially increasing the vigilance of the fire patrols. A history and discussion of this subject is published in the *Monthly Weather Review* (Washington, D. C.) by E. B. Calvert, Chief of the Forecast Division in the Weather Bureau. He says:

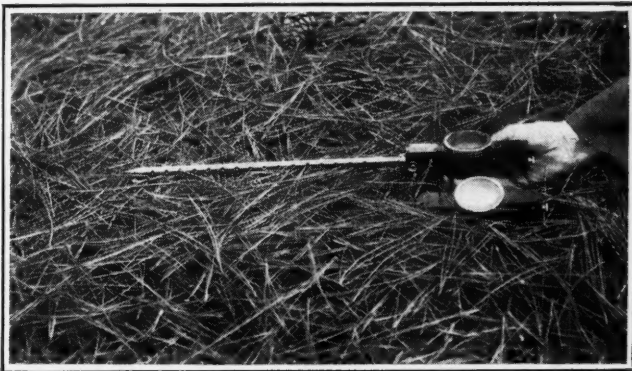
The issuing of forecasts as an aid to the protection of forests against fires is not new. At first the regular daily forecasts were applied in the main incidentally by forestry interests in the Pacific Coast States, but the advantages derived from utilizing them were so apparent that requests for a service more directly applicable to the particular purpose

became very insistent, especially in the far Western States, and led to the organization of a distinctive forecast project, known as the fire-weather warning service.

The worst fires in Washington and Oregon occur in connection with the dreaded east wind. When these winds are preceded by a period of even ordinarily warm, dry weather, conditions are caused under which fires start easily; and when started, human effort, even when thoroughly organized, is taxed to the utmost in controlling them. Frequently this is not accomplished until after vast areas have been devastated, many thousand dollars' worth of timber destroyed, and lives sacrificed. The year 1910 was characterized by destructive forest fires in the North Pacific States, and there was a repetition in 1912. Therefore, in the spring of 1913 the Forest Service and the Western Forestry and Conservation Commission appealed to the Weather Bureau to make a special study of the meteorological conditions under which the east winds occur, with a view to forecasting them far enough in advance for preparations to be made to prevent fires by shutting down logging operations, by refraining from intentional burning of slash and debris, and by the taking of many other precautions familiar to protective agencies; also to enable the fire-fighting units to be put on guard and deployed in such way as to attack fires with the least possible delay.

The Weather Bureau was eager to render assistance to the fullest extent of its funds and facilities. However, this was by no means easy of accomplishment. No weather reports were available from certain large forested areas, especially from British Columbia. Reports from the latter region were especially important because the east winds of Washington and Oregon are caused by high-pressure areas moving across British Columbia to Alberta and Montana. Any attempt to issue fire weather forecasts without the aid of telegraphic weather reports from British Columbia (it should be remembered that at that time observations from Alaska were not available) would indeed be a precarious undertaking. However, through the energetic interest of Sir Frederic Stupart, director of the Canadian Meteorological Service, an arrangement was made for obtaining twice-daily telegraphic weather reports from Prince Rupert, Barkerville, and Triangle Island, and by the time the season of fire hazard in 1914 arrived, a forecasting system for the States of Washington and Oregon, Idaho, and California was in operation.

Such was the beginning of the Weather Bureau's fire-weather warning service, which has since been extended to other forested regions of the country, though it is still of a fragmentary character. An important step in the expansion of the service was taken in the summer of 1924, when a period of drought prevailing in the Pacific Coast



HYGROMETERS AS USED BY THE FOREST SERVICE TO MEASURE THE MOISTURE OF FOREST LITTER

(One hygrometer is thrust in the "duff," or litter, while the other is shown as being used to measure the humidity of the air just above the forest floor)

States pointed to the imminence of a serious fire season. As the Bureau's funds were limited, an arrangement was made whereby part of the expense of more intensive methods was to be borne by the forestry associations of Washington and Oregon, and cooperation on the part of the U. S. Forest Service was also assured. Under these conditions two meteorologists of the Weather Bureau were withdrawn from other duties and assigned to fire-weather work; one at Seattle and the other at Portland. The service in California was handled by the regular forecast official at San Francisco. A number of special observation stations were established, and a comprehensive system of telegraphic reports and warnings was put into effect. These measures were justified by the occurrence of one of the worst fire seasons on record. Mr. Calvert quotes several statements from officials of the forestry associations expressing great satisfaction with the results of this hurriedly organized fire-weather service.

The work is in a somewhat tentative state in other parts of the country, where the meteorological conditions conducive to forest fires are not always identical with those that favor fires in the West. A great deal of preliminary investigation remains to be carried out. Data are being collected in certain regions in the shape of daily records of the weather and of the moisture condition of the forest cover made by wardens and rangers at selected places in the forests. The forestry and lumbering interests of the southern Appalachian region have made a special appeal for fire-weather warnings, in response to which

arrangements have been made whereby each morning during periods when fire hazard exists, a representative of the Forest Service secures from the forecaster in Washington by telephone, forecasts and advices concerning the probable weather conditions for various sections of the region in question. These forecasts are then telegraphed to the fire wardens, as circumstances warrant, without expense to the Weather Bureau. By this plan an expert forester,

who is well informed regarding the topography and conditions in the areas for which the forecasts are made, has the advantage of personal discussion with the forecaster. Experience will probably show that more satisfactory service and more definite instructions to the fire wardens can be given in this way than by having the wardens depend on their own interpretations of necessarily brief forecasts sent directly to them.

The Paris Exposition of Decorative Arts

THE great Exposition drawing to a close at the Grand Palais in Paris has had an indubitable success such as those who have pleaded the cause of modern art for the last ten years dared not hope would result. The Paris public and tourists from afar have crowded through the buildings and galleries where every type of decorative art, from architecture to ceramics, done in the "modern manner," was to be seen.

Much American and English comment about the exposition has been appearing recently and the opinions of a French critic writing in a French journal may therefore be of particular interest to our readers. M. Pierre du Colombier in *Le Correspondant* (Paris) sees neither the success of the Exposition nor the Exposition itself as utterly satisfactory. The public bestows indiscriminate enthusiasm on everything on display. The Exposition, says M. du Colombier, who is evidently an ardent advocate of modern art, is too great a mélange of relics of past styles, present successes and hints of future styles all together, to have this mean that the public has become converted to modern art. If any benefit is to come from the Exposition, the public must have pointed out what in this strange collection is really viable and so deserving of their approval.

The modern public takes an interest in decoration in its own way. It, rather than the artists, settles upon the style of its art, and it was a distinct forward step for the modernists when the large department stores began to carry articles designed by artists in the modern manner.

Just how far the modern spirit is really shown in the Exposition seems debatable. M. du Colombier deplures that much of the architectural work shown there, particularly that of older architects who have "arrived," is not primarily modern. In general, however, the modern spirit shows itself in simplified curves and ornamenta-

tion, the buildings depending for their beauty on form and mass and material. The decoration is balanced and rhythmic. M. du Colombier has little respect for the landscape architecture and garden design as it is shown in the Exposition. Except that it is difficult to make trees and flowers ugly, he believes the architects would have succeeded in achieving that result.

Interior decoration has gone far ahead of architecture in the opinion of the French critic. Many of the interiors exhibited are really lovely, and true to the modern spirit. Dignity, simplicity, color in plain masses, lend themselves to both a theatrical and an ultra-plain type of interior.

This over-simplification of walls calls on the arts of painting and sculpture, of course. Painting to-day is not essentially decorative, and the murals at the Exposition do not adapt themselves as well as the sculptural pieces which are often startlingly suitable and lovely.

Perhaps the greatest advance indicated is in furniture design. Atrocious adaptations of periods are disappearing and much is being made of the beauty of natural woods and simple panellings. A like transformation is shown in the development of all the appurtenances of daily life. Glass, ceramics, tableware, fabrics, are all being handled with imagination and increasingly thoughtful skill.

The exhibits of the work of foreign countries change the composition of the Exposition but little in the opinion of M. du Colombier. The British show a combination of the styles of 1900 with the Pre-Raphaelite school. In Italy, Holland, Belgium, little has been done. Russia charms the public with her peasant art, and distresses it with her "official" Soviet art, where out-of-date daring, such as discarded cubism, mingles with bourgeois timidity. It is in Germany that modern art has gone farthest, but it is not represented in the

Exposition. Austria and Czechoslovakia, however, reacting from too severe discipline, have developed an art, baroque, nervous in the extreme, which still achieves beauty because of the truly artistic spirit in which it is executed. Here is modern art without affectation.

M. du Colombier concludes that while no one dares hope that this Exposition will really arouse commerce and industry, nor create a public demand for modern art sufficient to arouse them, it may widen public knowledge and interest, and it may lead to a realization on the part of the artists

themselves that true success will not come until they discipline themselves, and give the public a unified art. "Mankind is of one mind," says M. du Colombier. "He cannot have a modern vision for painting or sculpture, and a retrospective one for furniture and decoration. In each period a harmony must exist such that the decorations of life form a means by which one may come to admire the major arts, and these are left singularly destitute when this step up is lacking . . . Perhaps this is the explanation for a very real trouble, the divorce of the major arts and the public."

A Note on the Success of the Theater Guild of New York

PROBABLY few followers of the theater in America would deny the contribution which has been made to the New York theater by the Theater Guild. The Guild, which as recently as 1919 was a new and debatable venture, with a seemingly idealistic scheme of presenting at least six really good plays a season that promised certainly no financial success, has almost from its birth set a standard of good production of excellent plays. For this boon the New York theater-going public have been everlastingly grateful, and have shown their gratitude by enthusiastic support.

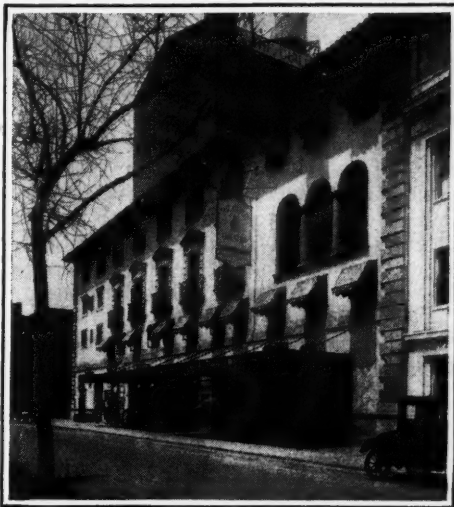
The Guild now has its own theater, built with the aid of a public subscription of over half a million dollars. The cornerstone was laid by the Governor of New York State and the first performance was opened by an electric signal from the White House in Washington. At the time, the following tribute appeared in the *Outlook* (New York):

For seven years the Guild has been translating dreams into actualities. . . . Throughout its history it has combined ingenuity of direction and a judicious choice of actors from the professional stage. The Guild has succeeded in uniting the enthusiasm of amateurs with the competency of professionals.

At this same time Alexander Woollcott summarized the history of the Guild's rise to fame in the *New York Sun*:

When the first Guild meeting was held in 1919, they had \$500 in the bank and access to the Garrick Theater, which had not had a success in it for so many seasons that it usually stood idle and the superstitious Broadway managers would have none of it.

From that nervous beginning the Guild has grown



THE THEATER GUILD'S OWN NEW YORK THEATER

(The architects were C. Howard Crane, Kenneth Franzheim and Charles H. Bettis)

so that its subscribers—those who at the beginning of each season buy tickets for each of the six plays the Guild is pledged each year to give—now number more than 14,000. Its fame has so spread that it is known in Budapest and Vienna and Dublin and Paris as no American theater was ever known before. Its scale of operations has so expanded that besides its new theater it has four other New York playhouses under at least temporary control. And it has so grown in resourcefulness and skill that the best of American playwrights are beginning to bring their manuscripts to its door.

At first these were offish and suspicious and the Guild was fairly driven to depend on the playwrights of other lands. Indeed the wags insisted that the

new theater should be named either the Hungarrick or the Budapesthouse. But all this is changing, and I think the day is not far distant when the very fact that the Guild stands there equipped for (and committed to) disinterested production will inspire the writers of some great plays just as the existence and perfection of the Moscow Art Theater moved a shabby country doctor named Tchekhov to write the finest plays of his age.

Mr. William Lyon Phelps in the August *Scribner's* (New York) quotes the above with his own comments on the Guild's rise to a position of prestige such that to-day, "Theater Guild Production" means just about the best thing in New York." Following its first production, Benavente's "Bonds of Interest," which failed, Lawrence

Langner, by chance, came across St. John Ervine's play "John Ferguson," and persuaded the Guild to produce it.

Any manager in New York might have produced it, but none believed in it. The new Theater Guild put it on as their second production; it had an enormous success; it gave the Guild prestige, and best of all, it filled the treasury to the brim. It made the company independent; since the first night of "John Ferguson" they have never known either mental or financial depression.

It (the Guild) has given encouragement to dramatic art everywhere, and if the citizens of other American cities have no opportunities to see good plays, it is their own fault. But better times are coming; to take only one instance out of many, the opening of Miss Jessie Bonstelle's Playhouse in Detroit is significant.

Courses of Study in South American Universities

IN THEIR eager search for new, as well as older, places to continue their studies and so broaden their powers, American students, particularly graduate students and those interested in the law, should consider the universities of South America. That they differ greatly from North American universities in character and scope is made clear in a condensed but comprehensive survey made by Heloise Brainerd, Chief of the Division of Education of the Pan-American Union, in the September *Bulletin* of that organization.

In all South American States excepting Venezuela, which follows our system, the school year begins in March or April and closes in November or December. There are thirty-five universities in the ten Republics, supported for the most part by the state, because necessarily supervised by the state, since a South American university degree in a profession bestows along with it the state's permission to practice.

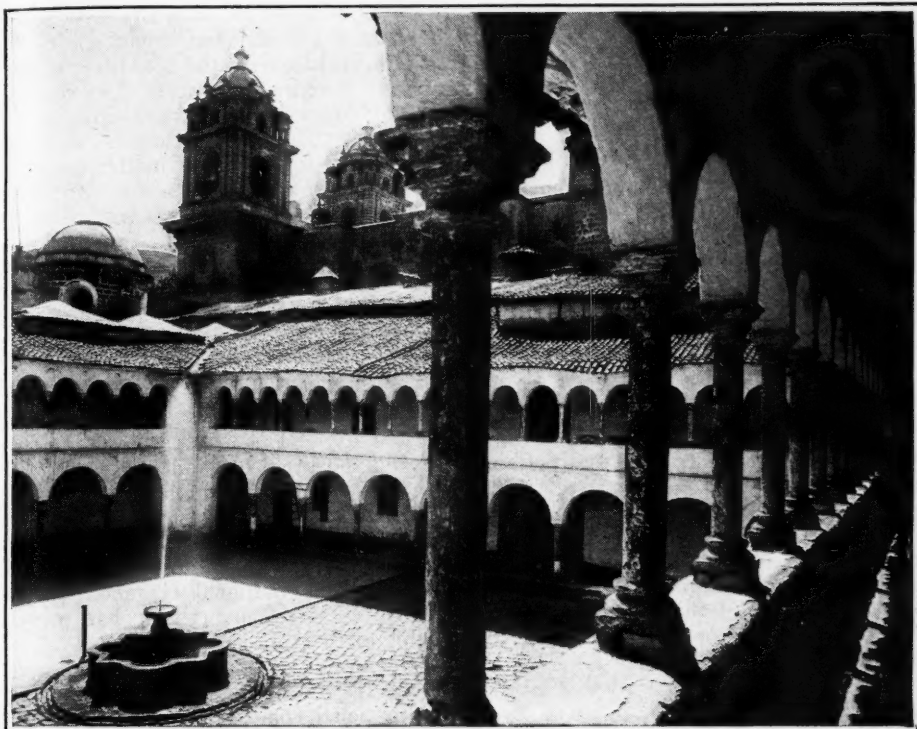
Universities such as we know, including schools in almost every branch of learning, are not as yet developed. There are usually no more than three or four schools in a university—almost universally one of law, and usually one of medicine, with annexed schools of pharmacy and dentistry. There are also a fairly large number of engineering schools, which include architecture, or have a separate school of architecture in connection with them. Surprisingly enough, there are only a few colleges of liberal arts.

There are four colleges of education, three of agriculture, two of commerce, and four or five schools of fine arts.

For admission, graduation from an official or accredited secondary school or normal school usually suffices; occasionally entrance examinations are required, or a special preparatory course. Students of secondary schools specializing in the same field as the college, as those trained in lower technical schools wishing to enter engineering schools, are almost universally accepted.

In examining curricula, one is immediately struck by the predominately technical character of university instruction. The secondary school, which is looked upon as the place for the humanities, gives all of the general cultural preparation, including an encyclopedic survey of science, philosophy, history of civilization and considerable study of foreign languages. The universities are thus left free to give strictly professional training. The courses in law, medicine, and to a lesser degree, engineering, cover about the same number of years as the combined preprofessional and professional courses in the United States. The purely professional aim of instruction is perhaps responsible for the fact that no electives are allowed, each course being entirely or almost entirely prescribed.

The law course is, for example, usually five or six years in length. There are almost no cultural courses. Much time is given to Roman law, on which Latin-American legal systems are based, courses in which are almost impossible to find in North America. International law and diplomacy figure largely. In Bolivia diplomacy leads to a doctorate in social sciences, and is required



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COURTYARD OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CUZCO IN PERU

for entrance upon a diplomatic career. Another marked difference is a three-year notarial course.

The medical course is usually six years in length, with clinical work beginning in the third year, except in Chile, where twelve months of clinical practice is required at the close of a five-year course. Schools of dentistry and pharmacy usually cover three or four years. Only the University of Buenos Aires offers post-graduate courses. Engineering schools usually offer a six-year course in civil engineering, and four, five, or six-year courses in other branches such as mechanical, mining, electrical or industrial. The architecture course is usually five years. A thorough grounding in mathematics, theoretical study of physics and chemistry accompany the special engineering subjects.

In the fairly rare schools of liberal arts, the majors are strictly prescribed. The four-year curriculum leading to the Ph.D. degree in Venezuela includes a great deal of philosophy, ancient and modern literature, history, and one introductory course in social sciences.

The colleges of education are few. Colleges of philosophy and letters are often largely institutions for training teachers. Pedagogical training requires courses in education, teaching methods, and practice teaching. In the schools of education proper, natural sciences, psychology, logic, philosophy, history and teaching principles and practice are common to all the majors.

Agriculture is a four-year course in the Argentine universities, fairly broad in scope, but entirely prescribed. . . . A separate four-year veterinary course is offered. The College of Economic Sciences, or Commerce, at Buenos Aires University, has a five-year curriculum which emphasizes economics, includes considerable study of law and foreign trade. . . . The college also offers a consular course and one for teachers of commercial subjects.

Discussing the subject of the degrees to be obtained from the South American universities, Miss Brainerd emphasizes the fact that it is the secondary school which confers the bachelor's degree, the universities giving professional titles and doctor's degrees.

Some sort of original project is generally required before the granting of the professional title. In

Colombia, six months' practice following a six-year course is required for the title of civil engineer.

For the doctor's degree in philosophy, engineering, education, etc., a thesis is always required, and frequently it must be defended before the entire faculty.

The fact that the subject matter and the flexibility of the curriculum in North American universities differs so greatly from those of South American institutions would render undergraduate exchanges and the like almost impossible. For the graduate

student, however, as Miss Brainerd points out, there are excellent opportunities for work in such fields as the Spanish language, Spanish-American literature and history, art, archaeology, foreign-trade subjects, and the law. These opportunities seem so valuable as to make it a matter of regret that they are not more fully known. Miss Brainerd, however, holds herself ready to furnish further information to those who wish to know more of particular universities, or special branches of study.

International Research

OF all the branches of human knowledge there is none older than that pertaining to the successive stages of social and moral evolution of the human race, and yet, up to a comparatively recent date, no specific science has devoted itself to that particular line of research.

In a late issue of the *Nordisk Tidskrift* (Stockholm), Professor Alf Sommerfelt gives an interesting account of the founding of the Institute for Comparative Cultural Research.

During the years of the war, he remarks, the Scandinavian countries—Sweden, Norway, and Denmark—were enabled by their position to continue the scientific work of the civilized world relatively unhampered. The scientists of those countries soon realized that it would become their task after the war to reestablish the interrupted connections between the various scientific agencies of the world. Acting on this impulse, Prof. Fredrik Stang, Rector of the University of Oslo (at that time Christiania), recommended to the meeting of the Interparliamentary Association in 1917, that a Home or Reservation for international scientific pursuits be established in Scandinavia.

His suggestion was readily accepted, and an international committee was appointed to prepare the general plans and to submit them to the respective governments and to the scientists concerned. The idea was received very favorably by the public and the press, and subsequently inflowing funds have assured at least the permanency of the undertaking.

It was the original intention of the founders to engage the services of young, prominent scientists, regardless of their

nationality. This plan, however, was beyond the reach of available means, and the work at the present time is carried on by men attached to other institutions of learning, principally Norwegian. While it is to be regretted that this arrangement tends to make the international character of the institute less pronounced, it has proved highly satisfactory as a starter.

The aim of those concerned in the work of the Institute is to attain, by organized, international, comparative research, a higher view and a more objective understanding of the human race and its cultural evolution through the ages. At the official opening of the Institute, last fall, Professor Stang delivered a speech from which Mr. Sommerfelt quotes the following:

With the advent of modern astronomy mankind had to renounce its previous, somewhat conceited ideas of this earth of ours as being the center of the universe around which every other thing revolved. We acquired the knowledge that the earth is only one of the innumerable spheres whirling through space, as all the rest, in a continuous circuit, from the time of creation until the day of disintegration, and that it is subjected to the same laws that govern the entire universe.

Training our thoughts along analogous lines, it might be conceivable, therefore, that the man of culture of to-day will perceive some day that his individual culture, or that of his people or of his time, is not the center of the world from which all other cultures can be properly adjudged. Rather, he may have to admit that the culture befitting our temporary circumstances is just a link in the great chain of human evolution, a component part of a great unity.

The Institute for Comparative Cultural Research will constitute no part of any political group, it will serve no particular nationality; it will endeavor to find and study the traits that are common to all human beings, and to deduce the laws

governing the evolution of the various human cultures.

At the inaugural meeting of the Institute lectures on comparative language research were delivered by a Frenchman, Mr. Meillet, and by a Dane, Mr. Jespersen. The well-known authority on folklore, Mr. Krohn, a Finlander, rendered an orientation in the methods of folklore research; the Norwegian, Mr. Shetelig, treated problems and results of study of Norwegian archeology; the Russian-born Englishman, Mr. Vinogradov, lectured on the subject of Right and Custom, and the German, Mr. Krueger, on religious factors in the earliest forms of human culture. At the meeting this year, lectures are scheduled to be given by prominent scientists from France, America, England, Germany, and the Scandinavian countries. Mr. Boas, the distinguished American ethnologist, and Mr. Starbuck, the religious-psychological specialist, will represent the United States. Sweden will send Bernhard Karlgren, the foremost authority of the present time on Chinese culture, ancient and modern.

In addition to these activities of a more or

less theoretical nature, the Institute for Comparative Cultural Research is taking active part in, when not leading, research work all over the world. It is endeavoring to find some means of identifying possible connections, prehistoric or otherwise, between the races of assumed relationship, thus broadening our knowledge and understanding of the transitions of the human race and of the evolutions of its culture.

The Caucasus countries, with their veritable mosaic of some fifty nations and as many tongues, offer a vast field for such investigation into the relationship of these peoples with those of the Indo-European group on the one side, and of the Asia Minor group on the other.

Certain of the Scandinavian countries also represent a very promising domain for research work of this kind. The Eskimos of the polar regions, the Laplanders of Northern Norway, Sweden, and Finland, have many racial traits in common with the Indians of North America and the Mongolians of Asia, and fragments of their languages or dialects have been traced to widely different parts of the globe.

German Legislation on Industrial Dwellings

A RECENT article in the *International Labor Review*, the monthly publication of the International Labor Office at Geneva, outlines the German legislation that has come into existence to deal with war-made housing problems, especially with regard to the regulation of industrial dwellings, i.e., dwellings built or provided by the employer as such for his employee. Such industrial dwellings are provided in almost all countries, in many cases necessitated by the situation of the mill or factory far from other accommodations.

German industrial dwellings are numerous, and the post-war housing shortage in Germany has forced housing legislation, much of it dealing with the special problems these employer-owned dwellings present.

The basis of the problem as it affects the housing shortage is the fact that in almost all cases the tenure of the employee terminates with his employment contract. Unemployment in many cases therefore becomes synonymous with homelessness.

Private building in Germany is at a standstill, unless done under government

subsidy. The Government therefore cannot afford to discourage building done by employers for their workers, and can only hope to prevent its dangers. The original housing act in 1918 treated industrial dwellings in the same way as privately owned houses, assuming the right to dispose of the property, and regulating rents and evictions. The employer had to appeal to the Rent Office for permission to give notice or evict, and as a general rule this was only granted if new dwellings were available. As a result often the majority of such dwellings were occupied by persons no longer in the employ of the owner.

To avoid this undesirable state of affairs the new laws set up a purely legal doctrine for such dwellings, separate from the rules governing private properties. To-day, the employer who wishes to terminate the lease of a worker living in one of his houses must apply for an annulment of the lease, to be granted only for a limited number of reasons specified in the act.

When employment ceases, therefore, the lease does not terminate unless (1) the

employment contract has been broken by the employer for a cause admitted by law as justified by the conduct of the worker; (2) the employment contract has been broken by the worker, and the employer has not given cause in the eyes of the law. Such a worker can be evicted even without a place to go. All of this, of course, exerts tremendous pressure on the worker to keep his employment contract, since it means his home as well as his job, and homes are impossibly hard to find.

If the employer is in the wrong, he can only get annulment of the lease if the tenant molests the landlord, damages his property, transfers it to a third party without authorization, or is three months, in some cases two months, in arrears with the rent. Often a sum of money in lieu of other accommodation frees the landlord from obligation if he has use for the dwelling—such as the housing of new employees.

The Tenant Protection Act contains one very important provision to protect the tenant-worker. It states that "trade union activity, more particularly participation in collective disputes over wages and conditions of labor shall not be taken as sufficient reason for terminating the contract of employment," and striking does not lay the worker open to "retaliatory eviction."

The latest Rent Acts provide for an accommodation rental to go to the landlord to pay for management and upkeep, the remainder to go to the state, 10 per cent. to go into new building, the rest being given over to currency stabilization and financial reconstruction.

Present legislation on compulsory housing distribution does not dispose of industrial dwellings unless there is serious shortage in the district, and the dwellings have been vacant at least four weeks, with the probability that they will continue so four weeks longer.

Building by employers is encouraged by the state, but in a more or less negative way. There is no state subsidy for any but individual enterprises; in fact, employers whose workers live in houses built by government funds must contribute to the municipality building funds.

As another means for maintaining the independence of the worker living in industrial dwellings, are the Work Councils organized "to participate in the administration of . . . dwellings attached to the works, and other welfare arrangements." This juxtaposition clearly indicates the aspect of industrial dwellings to be fostered: they are primarily institutions for promoting the well-being of the worker.

New Dangers that Beset the Wage Earner

DESPITE the vast campaign that has been waged in behalf of providing safe and sanitary conditions for wage earners, tragic figures reveal that at any given time about 3,000,000 industrial workers are seriously ill, with an average yearly loss of time of 9 days per worker; also that 42 per cent. of this loss is preventable. One reason why efforts to improve this situation have not attained greater success is that new industrial hazards are constantly arising. The old dangers are well known, and appropriate measures of protection have been fully worked out. The new often remain unrecognized until they have occasioned a great deal of loss and suffering.

An article in the *Monthly Labor Review* (Washington, D. C.) by Dr. Francis V. Murphy, Industrial Health Inspector for the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, presents a starting list of the dangers attending new industrial processes.

Some of the most lauded labor-saving devices have, it appears, their sinister side. Dr. Murphy says, for example:

Among the multiplicity of modern hazards may be cited the growing use of the spray gun. An efficient operator with this device takes the place of three or five hand-workers, and the menace to health is serious in spraying wooden and metal surfaces with lead paints, as the splashing and spattering of the liquid poisons make it difficult to protect the operator even with a well-fitting mask. The spraying of trees and plants and foliage to destroy insects and gypsy and browntail moths and caterpillars is a common instance of the use of lead and arsenic solutions to the occasional detriment of the operator. The use of arsenate of lead and arsenite of copper has increased amazingly in recent years, and several well-defined causes of lead and arsenic poisoning have been reported in the manufacture and spraying of these poisonous compounds.

The widespread demand for a smooth and durable and glossy coating for automobiles has recently been met by the use, on a large scale, of an irritative and inflammable and suffocative proprietary preparation. This spraying liquid contains pyroxylin or nitrocellulose as a base, and its use in successive layers is

occasioning much complaint and suffering on the part of many operators, as it causes intense catarrhal affections of the throat and nose and eyes.

The automobile industry has brought many other new hazards, including the effects of various substances used in automobile factories on the skin of the workers, and the intense headache and profound depression suffered by garage employees in consequence of inhaling exhaust motor gases.

Modern garages are meeting this emergency by installing exhaust fans and providing an abundant supply of fresh, pure air. A recent chemical analysis of the exhaust from gasoline engines indicated the presence of 9 per cent. of carbon monoxide and 7 per cent. of carbon dioxide. Carbon monoxide is very dangerous, even in small amounts, as it forms a more or less stable compound with the hemoglobin coloring of the red blood cells and thus prevents the oxygenation of the tissues. This poisonous gas is also encountered in large quantities in the manufacture of illuminating gas, and sometimes in sewers and manholes from leaking gas mains. Lead poisoning in the automobile industry may occur while sandpapering the primary white lead coat.

The remarkable work of the oxy-acetylene torch in cutting and brazing has unfortunately its drawbacks in the shape of harmful fumes, while electric welding involves a special hazard, because the operator must work with precision and at the same time protect his eyes from the intense light by shields of several alternating layers of red and blue glass.

The recent brilliant researches of Professor Mallory have revealed conclusively that copper dust is a potent and insidious industrial poison, acting

directly by destroying the red blood cells and inducing degenerative changes in the liver substance. In his group of cases, six men were exposed to chronic copper poisoning from milling and planing brass and inhaling and swallowing the dust. Consequently, the menace to brass foundries from the volatile copper is serious and may well be considered as a chief cause of the impaired health and lowered resistance of brass foundry workers. Brass buffers need protection from this long-neglected hazard, and so also do coppersmiths and bronze workers, and it is well here to remember that lead is also usually incorporated into brass compositions on account of its softening properties.

The manufacture of instruments of precision, such as microscopes, thermometers, and surveying instruments, requires close concentration and careful attention to exacting details, and places much strain upon the eyes. Conditions in this industry emphasize the necessity of adequate illumination and frequent ocular examinations.

Progressive impairment of hearing is on the increase and is another serious menace of modern industry. It is particularly noticeable in boiler makers, forgemen, blacksmiths, and men operating sledge hammers and riveting machines. Every effort should be made to exclude or to minimize harsh and discordant sounds in all workshops.

Radiant fires of the brilliant type are being much used, the cheaper grades of which give off much carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide, as do also coke and charcoal furnaces. These should be well drafted so that all gases are well diluted and promptly removed, if possible, from the point of origin.

The increasing manufacture of fine cutlery and mechanics' tools necessitates careful hardening by frequent dipping of the metal into a bath of pure molten lead or of cyanide of potassium. These health hazards should be controlled by proper hooding and effective ventilation.

This is but a beginning of a formidable catalogue of the new hazards of industry.

Underground New York

PART of underground New York is familiar to everybody who has visited the metropolis or who lives there. The many miles of transit subways; the sub-surface railway terminals; the underground entrances to hotels and department stores—these are among the well-known wonders of the city. They are, however, but a small part of a vast subterranean labyrinth of tunnels, conduits, subways and mains, most of which are ignored by the guide-books and hardly suspected to exist even by those who spend their lives just above them. In fact, these underground constructions have absorbed most of Manhattan's subsurface space. In the future it will be necessary either to plunge deeper and deeper into the earth or to rearrange the present system.

Writing in the *New York Times*, Mr. Silas Bent says:

We take it for granted that water, sewage, even gas, shall go by underground channels. Though our water comes from the Catskills, under a pressure of a hundred pounds to the square inch, that must be so. But the use of electricity for lighting, for power, for telephones, began but half a century ago, and at first the wires were overhead. Within the span of a generation there were but 10,000 telephones in New York City; there were two wires for each instrument, and all were visible. To-day the city has 1,100,000 telephones, and twice that number of wires are beneath our feet.

It was not until 1897 that all the wires in the city were put underground.

Yet even then no one could foresee how crowded the subsurface of New York was to become. It is no longer a matter of dropping an electric cable into a trench a few feet deep. Cables are carried now, in places, through tunnels eight feet square, hewn from

solid rock fifty feet below; and there are manholes large enough to accommodate a parlor, bedroom, bath and kitchenette. The underground investment merely for electric conduits on Manhattan Island is in the neighborhood of sixty millions.

Wire is being added to the telephone system in Manhattan at the rate of 20,000 miles a month. Sometimes it is necessary to dip beneath a transit subway system; sometimes mere congestion makes the deeper tunnel necessary. When it was obligatory, for instance, to cross Fifth Avenue in Thirtieth Street, the weight of traffic above and the tangle of pipes, wires, shafts, conduits and water mains already existent under the surface made it necessary to delve deep that there might be no interference. In some sections of Manhattan there are telephone manholes three "stories" deep. It is not uncommon to find cables centering twenty-four feet below the street level, where thousands upon thousands of wires are "fanned out" to instruments near by.

A most extraordinary aggregation of underground wires exists in the district west of Seventh Avenue in Thirty-sixth Street, where the telephone company expects ultimately to house eight central offices in its new buildings. Below the West Side Interborough Subway a U-shaped passageway 150 feet long, eight feet wide and eight feet high has been cut and blasted through the rock at a depth of fifty feet, and in this now lie more than a third of a million separate telephone wires.

They are clustered in cables a little less than three inches in diameter, each leaden sheath containing 1,200 pairs of wires; and these in turn are housed in iron ducts, 144 of them, embedded in concrete and covered over with concrete. They are there to stay. Cables were pulled through these iron ducts, after the concrete had hardened, to Sixth Avenue on the east and Eighth Avenue on the west, forming a trunk line conduit system; but the channels stretching from each side of Seventh Avenue were shallower than the tunnel there. If the wire underneath these two blocks of Thirty-sixth Street were coiled about the globe, the earth would wear a shining copper belt of 640 strands.

With 16,000,000 miles of telephone wire alone under two city blocks, you may fancy what the network is over the whole island of Manhattan. The telephone wires run along one side of the street, as a rule, and the lighting wires, which are nearly as great in length, run along the other side, in a separate conduit. The telephone wires are low-tension, the lighting wires high-tension, and they are approached, repaired, extended, by means of separate manholes.

The telephone and lighting wires are not alone. There are telegraph wires, too, under many streets, and the telegraph companies use in addition pneumatic tubes, through which they shoot messages from central offices to nearby stations. Uncle Sam uses tubes of this sort for moving part of his mail, and the news agencies for transmitting part of their daily grist to the newspaper offices. All the pneumatic subways are operated by a single concern.

There are many good-sized tunnels under Manhattan besides the well-known transit

subways. Hotels have tunnels to nearby railway terminals, and a single department store has built three of them between adjacent properties. Many factories and breweries maintain their own tunnels to the Hudson or the East River in order to get water without buying it from the city. Then there are private tunnels connecting different buildings of common ownership, and tunnels for the underground pipes of central heating systems.

But we have not yet taken any account of the gas mains, the sewers nor the water supply. Nearly every apartment house and dwelling in Manhattan has its gas supply for fuel or for illumination, or both, and there are considerably more than half a million families living on Manhattan alone, although it is not the chief residential borough. The sewerage system on the island is but 545 miles long, and the channels are not large in comparison with some other cities, because the shoestring shape of the city makes it easy to reach water. The larger sewers are but 8 by 12 feet, although there is one under Canal Street which is 8 by 16.

Manhattan gets its water from the Catskills, a distance of a hundred miles. The great Ashokan Reservoir, with a capacity of 130,000,000,000 gallons, contains water enough to cover all Manhattan Island thirty feet deep.

Starting nearly 600 feet above sea-level, the water rushes to the city through enormous circular tunnels in solid rock, reduced in diameter gradually from fifteen to eleven feet, so as to maintain the pressure. The main tunnels are from 200 to 750 feet below the street surface in Manhattan, so as to avoid interference with the intertwined systems nearer ground; from the tunnels the water is delivered through vertical, riveted steel standpipes to the street mains, and the pressure is reduced thus from 100 pounds to the square inch to fifty pounds, then to thirty, then to twenty in the smaller pipes. Even the slightest pressure is enough to force it to the sixth floors of apartment houses. Taller buildings are supplied from tanks on the roof, into which water is pumped. The entire supply is purified by aeration, or sterilized with chlorine, before it is delivered to our taps.

Greater pressure underground would be dangerous; but greater pressure is required to fight fires in tall buildings. And so a high-pressure fire service system in downtown Manhattan helps to complicate still further the underground arrangements there. Each of the two stations has six electrically driven centrifugal pumps, and delivers either salt or fresh water at the rate of 3,000 gallons a minute; combined, they are equal to fifty fire-engines. These send their water through 128 miles of special mains, tapped by nearly 3,000 four-nozzle hydrants.

The picture of what is going on beneath the feet of Manhattanite and the tourist visitor requires two slight touches to complete it. The Pennsylvania Railroad runs twin tunnels across the island and underneath the East River for its Long Island commuters; and there are oil-pipe lines from Jersey to Long Island City.

THE NEW BOOKS

Economic and Social Discussions

The Present Economic Revolution in the United States. By Thomas Nixon Carver. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 270 pp.

Revolution is an old word and doubtless an overworked one. It has stood for many ideas. Probably it has never before been employed in quite the same sense in which Professor Carver has used it in the title and text of his latest book. For in his words, "the only economic revolution now under way is going on in the United States. It is a revolution that is to wipe out the distinction between laborers and capitalists by making laborers their own capitalists and by compelling most capitalists to become laborers of one kind or another, because not many of them will be able to live on the returns from capital alone. This is something new in the history of the world." Throughout his book, which is not at all an economic treatise of the conventional sort, Professor Carver appeals to the facts of current history, to phenomena which we have all seen and are seeing in the course of our daily lives. Only yesterday labor was fighting capital. To-day it is recognizing the power of capital and using it as an instrument for its own improvement. Professor Carver cites the rapid growth of savings deposits, the investment by laborers in the shares of corporations and the growth of labor banks. His analysis of the whole situation is optimistic.

Economic Liberalism. By Jacob H. Hollander. The Abingdon Press. 197 pp.

A series of lectures delivered at Wesleyan University on the Bennett Foundation during the present year. Professor Hollander holds the chair of Political Economy in Johns Hopkins University. In the field of economics he is not a theorist merely, but has held such administrative positions as the treasurership of Porto Rico and the office of financial adviser of the Dominican Republic. In both these positions he has had large responsibilities in devising and introducing revenue systems. His chapter in the present book entitled "Liberalism and Taxation" is concerned with the practice of government rather than the theories of economists. He also considers "Liberalism and the Price Level," "Liberalism and Trade Unionism," "Liberalism and Social Reform" and "Economic Liberalism and the American Spirit." In these chapters he discusses what he regards as outstanding issues before the American people at the present time.

Common Wealth: a Study in Social Philosophy. By C. G. Campbell. The Century Company. 472 pp.

A new interpretation and a restatement of the fundamental principles of economics. The author first endeavors to outline the conditions in the

nature of things to which men must conform in order to create wealth. This he calls the Natural Economy. In the second place he examines the additions which man has made to this Natural Economy, the aggregate of which he terms the Artificial Economy. Finally, in a consideration of the broad aspects of both the Natural and Artificial Economy, he deduces the true utility of wealth and the means by which this can best be attained. Dr. Campbell insists that ethical precepts in themselves are not to be relied upon as guides to human action unless they conform to natural biological and physiological conditions. He holds that biological laws, generally embraced in the law of survival, are the true guides to human action; that the true objective of human life is preponderantly racial and not individual, and that all ethical, moral and practical principles must have a basis in scientific findings.

State Experiments in Australia and New Zealand. By William Pember Reeves. E. P. Dutton and Company. Vol. I: 391 pp. Vol. II: 366 pp. With maps.

For more than twenty years this book has been the standard work on the remarkable developments in the social and economic legislation of Australia and New Zealand. For some time it has been out of print and its republication will be welcomed by students throughout the English-speaking world. The author is a native of New Zealand who began his career as a practicing lawyer, and later became a government official. He served as a member of the New Zealand Parliament, as Minister of Education, Labor and Justice, and as Agent General of the Colony. In later years he represented New Zealand as High Commissioner in England, and held that office until he became Director of the London School of Economics. In his account of state experiments in Australia and New Zealand he is describing what he personally saw and in much of which he had a part. His book therefore has a special value apart from its purely documentary importance.

Race or Nation: A Conflict of Divided Loyalties. By Gino Speranza. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company. 278 pp.

The author of this book is an American of Italian parentage and himself belongs to the "New Stock" of which he writes. He appeals to the modern American of whatever racial lineage to see that a true and sane policy of Americanization is adopted and maintained. Mr. Speranza has made a first-hand study of the resistance to amalgamation offered by certain large, cohesive foreign colonies within our borders. He discusses the effect on our

national institutions of the presence in our country of such foreign elements with differing traditions, customs and points of view. The remedies that he proposes for the failure of the "melting pot" to melt are all derived from American experience.

Social Problems of To-day. By Grove Samuel Dow.—In collaboration with Edgar B. Wesley. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 337 pp. Ill.

Within the past few years the subject of sociology has been introduced in many high schools. As a text-book the work by Messrs. Dow and Wesley has much to commend it. It is made up of vitally interesting material, dealing not with merely academic questions but with practical problems related to population, immigration, racial differences, the family, the state, crime and poverty. It is emphatically a fact study.

Social Pathology. By Stuart Alfred Queen and Delbert Martin Mann. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 690 pp.

The authors of this book, who represent the department of sociology in the University of Kansas, have adopted the general plan of summarizing typical cases under such general heads as "Family Disorganization," "Economic Aspects of Social Disorganization" and "Health Aspects of Social Disorganization." All the material thus employed is concrete and vivid, and its bearing on causal relationships and methods of social treatment is clearly brought out in the text. Social

workers, as well as college classes, should be able to make good use of such a book as this.

Labor Economics. By Solomon Blum. Henry Holt and Company. 579 pp.

In "The American Business Series," edited by Prof. Roswell C. McCrea, of Columbia University, Prof. Solomon Blum of the University of California contributes a volume on "Labor Economics." This is an excellent presentation of the beginning, growth and present status of labor legislation; the development, methods and principles of the labor union and the wider aspect of the labor movement in general. In the main, the author sympathizes with the demands of labor, but reserves some sharp criticism for its leaders and their tactics. The book is well up-to-date and makes use of the latest available statistics.

Labor Laws of the United States, with Decisions of Courts Relating Thereto. (Labor Laws of the United States Series.) Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1240 pp.

This bulky volume is the first attempt to summarize the labor laws of the United States, with relevant court decisions, that has been made since 1913. During the intervening years the State legislatures have been especially active in the field of workmen's compensation, mine regulations and laws regulating the employment of children. The present compilation includes the legislation of the year 1924.

Biography and Autobiography

My Education and Religion. By George A. Gordon. Houghton Mifflin Company. 352 pp. Ill.

For more than forty years Dr. Gordon has been minister of the Old South Church in Boston. His long pastorate in so prominent a parish, coupled with marked intellectual ability and broad human sympathies, long ago gave him a national reputation. He has friends throughout the country who will be keenly interested in the autobiography of this young Scotch immigrant who came to our shores more than half a century ago and quickly succeeded, against great odds, in winning a degree at Harvard, where he enjoyed the friendship of President Eliot and Professors Palmer, James and Goodwin. His book is not wholly of the formal type, as indeed one might gather from its title. It is thoroughly readable, full of Scotch humor and entertaining anecdote. In these days of revived Fundamentalism it is something of a surprise to read that in 1884 there were those who thought that the young minister should be kept out of the Old South pulpit because of doubtful orthodoxy. One of the finest passages of Dr. Gordon's book is the account of his intimate friendship with Phillips Brooks.

John Heyl Vincent: a Biographical Sketch. By Leon H. Vincent. Macmillan. 319 pp. Ill.

The life story of Bishop Vincent, as written by his nephew and illuminated by many striking anecdotes supplied by his son, makes a most enter-

taining book. The early chapters describe the boyhood and youth of Bishop Vincent, his experiences as a schoolmaster, circuit rider, city missionary and theological student. Then follows an account of his life as a minister in New Jersey and in Illinois, his acquaintance with General Grant, and his efforts toward reform in current Sunday-school methods. Several chapters are devoted to his work as an editor and leader of institutes, as well as for the Chautauqua Movement. His activities as a bishop, first in the United States and then in Europe, are also described. As one of the founders of Chautauqua, Bishop Vincent was known to countless thousands both within and without his own church connection. He was one of the out-standing leaders of his time.

A Short Life of Florence Nightingale. Abridged from the "Life," by Sir Edward Cook. With additional matter by Rosalind Nash. Macmillan. 404 pp. Ill.

It is fortunate that this abridgment of the elaborate biography of Miss Nightingale by Sir Edward Cook has been brought out in the United States, where in her lifetime Miss Nightingale was almost as well known as in her native England. Throughout the world she will always be remembered as the woman who dignified the nurse's profession and greatly stimulated health legislation in all English-speaking lands.

Memoirs and Letters of Historic Interest

Twenty-five Years: 1892-1916. By Viscount Gray of Falldon. Frederick A. Stokes Company. Vol. I: 331 pp. Vol. II: 352 pp. With portraits.

The publication of Viscount Grey's memoirs is no ordinary event. Indeed it is a matter of the greatest general interest, since both volumes deal almost altogether with the relations of states and only in the slightest degree with the fortunes of an individual. "Twenty-Five Years" is the stuff out of which history will one day be written; for it sums up, as no other work does or can, the foreign policy of Great Britain from 1892 to 1916—a momentous period for the world, culminating in what seemed to British statesmen the very collapse of civilization. As Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Lord Grey, during the latter half of that period, held a peculiar responsibility for England's destinies. Perhaps no other Englishman carried about with him from day to day such a burden of knowledge about the world's impending troubles. That the solemnity of the times and the gravity of his office did not overwhelm him, is repeatedly shown in his letters. It is something to rejoice in when a British Minister of State, addressing a former President of the United States, can refer to his Sovereign's Ambassador at Washington as "Springy." This is only one instance of the great man's naturalness and freedom from some of the oppressions of official dignity. He himself says with undoubted sincerity that the chapter of his memoirs on America "will

show how quickly the official relations of individuals may pass into something closer and more intimate; something that has a place in the affections as well as in the memory." Three Americans—Colonel Roosevelt, Ambassador Page and Colonel House—were among Lord Grey's intimates. Several of Roosevelt's letters to him are now published for the first time, and there is a delightful account of the now famous "bird walk" which the two took together in England in 1910.

Correspondence of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson: 1812-1826. Selected with comment by Paul Wiltach. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company. 196 pp.

In the last fourteen years of their lives John Adams and Thomas Jefferson forgot the differences of their youth, and their reconciliation took the outward form of a remarkable correspondence. They died on the same day, July 4, 1826—Jefferson in his eighty-third year, Adams in his ninety-first. In the preceding March and April there had been an exchange of letters. The letters that they had written during those fourteen years were long and varied in theme. Mr. Paul Wiltach has here brought them together in order of sequence for the first time. These letters serve to emphasize the coincidences in the lives of these two fathers of the republic who differed so widely from each other in personal characteristics.

History and Description

Annapolis: Its Colonial and Naval Story. By Walter B. Norris. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 322 pp. Illustrated with etchings by Eugene P. Metour and drawings by Vernon Howe Bailey.

But for Winston Churchill's "Richard Carvel" many of us might never have known that we have in Annapolis, Maryland, at least one place on the Continent that preserves something of its Colonial charm. In this book Mr. Norris, of the Naval Academy, tells the story of the old town from its settlement in 1642 to the present day. He describes the ancient landmarks and relates those bits of national history with which Annapolis is closely associated. Accompanying the text are reproductions of etchings by Eugene P. Metour and drawings by Vernon Howe Bailey which convey not a little of the Colonial atmosphere.

The Doughboys' Book. By Carty Ranck. Boston: The Stratford Company. 380 pp.

This book takes its place among the narratives of the Great War as a modest attempt to set forth the viewpoint of the American soldier in action. The author obtained his material while he was acting as special correspondent in France for the *Brooklyn Eagle*. The "lesson" of his message, as he himself states it, is to make clear the fact that the spirit of 1776 was the spirit of 1918.

Wanderings and Excursions. By J. Ramsay MacDonald. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company. 319 pp.

Those among our readers who have not yet made the acquaintance of Ramsay MacDonald as a man of letters are urged to do so at once. The publication of his new book, "Wanderings and Excursions," affords an opportunity. In this book are noteworthy political essays—"The International" and "Politics and Politicians"—but the part that charms by its grace of expression is the section called "At Home," in which Mr. MacDonald writes of the scenic beauty of Scotland and discloses himself as a nature-lover and poet. These chapters are exquisite English.

Ships of the Seven Seas. By Hawthorne Daniel. With an introduction by Franklin D. Roosevelt. Doubleday, Page & Company. Drawings by Francis J. Rigney. 321 pp.

A well-informed, though non-technical, description of things nautical by a man who has served in every capacity on a merchant ship, from stoker and deck-hand to supercargo and officer. His experience enables him to write with a sureness of touch which will make his book interesting to those who already know the sea and ships, as well as to the landlubber who would like to know them.

Mesa, Cañon and Pueblo. By Charles F. Lummis. The Century Company. 517 pp. Ill.

About forty years ago Mr. Lummis began writing for the American public about the wonderland of the Great Southwest. One of his books, called "Some Strange Corners of Our Country," has been very widely read and has been an important factor in arousing interest in the region which it describes. That little book is the basis of the newly written and illustrated volume entitled "Mesa, Cañon and Pueblo." The illustrations of the earlier work have been replaced by 100 photographs, many of which were taken by Mr. Lummis himself and are now

published for the first time. There is no printed description of that region as a whole which rivals this new book by Mr. Lummis. No other writer has so thoroughly mastered the subject.

France from Sea to Sea. By Arthur Stanley Riggs. Robert M. McBride and Company. 394 pp. Ill.

This excellent description of France, written before the war, has been revised and brought up to date in a second edition. One of the new chapters which especially appeals to Americans is that entitled "Chateau-Thierry and Beyond."

Other Books of the Month

Winged Defense. By William Mitchell. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 261 pp. Ill.

In this book, Colonel Mitchell, former Assistant Chief of the American Air Force, describes the development of modern air power, both commercial and military. Colonel Mitchell is an enthusiastic advocate of a government department of aviation and is numbered among those experts who are convinced that the United States needs a large air force, that anti-aircraft guns are not to be relied upon as an adequate defense against aerial attack, and that airplanes can successfully bomb battleships. For his frank expression of opinion on these subjects and his criticism of military and naval officials at Washington, Colonel Mitchell has once been demoted, but that fact does not seem to have altered his determination to sound a warning to the nation, and to make a vigorous plea for a more aggressive and intelligent air policy and administration. During the Great War Colonel Mitchell commanded all the American air forces in Europe as well as the joint American, French, British and Italian units during certain parts of the operations against Germany.

Our Naval Heritage. By Fitzhugh Green. The Century Company. 459 pp. Ill.

A view of the place to be taken by airplanes and dirigibles in the Navy, which differs in some respects from that of Colonel Mitchell, is presented in Lieutenant-Commander Fitzhugh Green's book, "Our Naval Heritage." Lieutenant-Commander Green devotes to this subject his two last chapters, the rest of his book being concerned with the story of our Navy, together with much information about the merchant marine. It is an excellent popular account of our national rise as a sea power, based on an exhaustive study of the whole subject. The book has the official approval of the historical section of the Navy Department at Washington.

Impressment of American Seamen. By James Fulton Zimmerman. Columbia University. 275 pp.

The bone of contention that brought us into war with England in 1812, although the subject is not so much as mentioned in the treaty that ended that war, is the subject of a somewhat elaborate thesis which appears as one of the "Studies in History,

Economics and Public Law," edited by the Political Science Faculty of Columbia University. Heretofore, most American writings upon the subject have been dictated perhaps more by sentiment than by consideration of the legal principles involved. Dr. Zimmerman maintains an impartial attitude and gives due weight to the logic of Great Britain's contention.

American Citizenship. By John W. Davis, Philip Cook, Albert C. Ritchie, Luther B. Wilson, Charles E. Hughes. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 88 pp.

A series of addresses given over the radio in June last under the auspices of the American Bar Association. The Hon. John W. Davis, Bishop Philip Cook, Governor Ritchie of Maryland, and Bishop Wilson spoke on the general subject of the Constitution and modern tendencies. The series was closed on June 30 by ex-Secretary Hughes with an address on "The Declaration of Independence." Each speaker pointed out that the basis of our Federal Government was individual liberty and State responsibility, subject only to the powers of Federal Government sufficient to meet national needs.

Literature for the Business Man. Selected and edited by Gerald E. Seboyar. F. S. Crofts & Company. 419 pp.

This book has one distinct merit which compilations of literary selections do not always possess. The editor does not try to dictate to his readers. On the contrary, he urges the prospective reader to choose his reading for himself. But, of course, the business man cannot make such a selection if he does not have a knowledge of sources from which he may choose. It is Dr. Seboyar's aim, therefore, "to give a taste of a number of the so-called classic authors of English and American literature." Many types of writing have been included, and a large number of these selections discuss matters directly pertaining to business. Brief introductory essays set forth the position and spirit of the authors, not attempting to give biographical details, except in instances where the business activities of the authors seem to demand the reader's consideration. The range is wide and the selections seem to us to have been wisely made.